The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 22, 1903.

The Week.

The House Committee on Rules has agreed that a day shall be assigned for consideration of the currency bill known as the amended Fowler bill. Its principal feature is the granting of power to national banks to take out and issue notes to the amount of 25 per cent. of their capital against the assets in their own vaults; that is, without depositing security therefor in the Treasury. The bill provides, however, that, before receiving such notes from the Comptroller, the bank shall deposit cash in the Treasury equal to 5 per cent. thereof, to form part of a common guaranty fund for all notes so taken out and issued. Such notes are to be a first lien on the assets of the issuing bank, and, in the event of the failure of any national bank, its notes issued under the provisions of this act shall be paid at the Treasury out of the guaranty fund, and the Treasury shall recover from the assets of the failed bank an amount equal to its outstanding notes and pay the same into the guaranty fund. The bill is a first step in the direction of what is commonly termed "assets currency," and although this is not the first time that a committee of the House has reported in favor of that principle, it is the first time that the House has been in a mood to seriously consider it. It is fair to presume, also, that the House will pass it at the present session. It is not likely that the Senate will act upon it now, but its passage by the House will give it an impetus that will make its passage through the next Congress quite probable.

The drawback clause of the tariff law allows a refund of duties to anybody who re-exports an imported article either in the original or in a different shape. Thus, if tin-plate is imported and then exported in the form of cans containing oil, or salmon, or condensed milk, or what not, the duties on the tin-plate will be refunded, provided the exporter identifies the material as the same on which duty was paid. It is not easy, however, to identify the material. So much trouble and delay is involved in the process that in many cases it costs more than it comes to. So Mr. Lovering of Massachusetts has introduced a bill in Congress to dispense with identification altogether. Under this bill American-made tin-plate, when exported, would be entitled to the rebate the same as though it had been imported and duties had been paid. The theory of the blessed tariff is that it merely covers the difference in wages between the cost of the imported and the domestic article. If that is the truth, the domestic producer and the foreign producer stand on the same footing in the American market. Why should the user of the foreign article have an advantage in the export trade? That is what Mr. Lovering would like to know. But we should like to know how the case stands when the duty on the foreign article is 4000 per cent., as in the case of mica. Is the Government to refund to the user of domestic mica its value forty times over when it is exported as a part of some other manufacture? Will not Mr. Lovering's bill put our blessed tariff into too glaring a light and expose it to dangers not now dreamed of?

Reference has been made in our columns to an ambiguous clause in the Cuban treaty regarding the rates of duty on sugar coming to the United States from other countries. The ambiguity has been removed by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, which has changed the phraseology so that, "while this convention is in force, no sugar shall be imported into the United States from any other foreign country at a lower rate of duty than that imposed by the act of July 24, 1898"—that is, by the Dingley tariff. This amendment is probably unconstitutional, seeing that it takes from the House of Representatives for five years the power to repeal or reduce the duties on sugar, and prevents both President and Senate during the same time from entering into any similar treaty with any other sugar-producing country. Attempts to tie the hands of future Congresses and Presidents are always fraught with dangerous consequences. It is conceivable that the Republican party might again desire to put sugar on the free list as was done in the McKinley tariff. The Democrats may carry the next national election, and may desire to deal with the sugar duties in a broader way than the Cuban treaty provides for. Would that party give much heed to a measure which assumes the power to "tie up" both the Executive and Legislative branches of the Government for five years? If the Senate can exercise such powers for five years, it can do so for ten or fifty.

It should not be overlooked that other sugar-producing countries may retaliate if they find us discriminating against them in this wise. In the German Reichstag on January 14, Count Posadowsky-Wehner said that since the United States had abandoned the old interpretation of the most-favored nation clause, Germany would abandon it also in her dealings with the United States. What will Germany be likely to do if she finds that we have entered into an agreement with Cuba that we will not put Germany on an equal footing with Cuba, no matter what concessions Germany may make in return? This scheme is evidently another protective device of the beet-sugar men. If they cannot defeat the Cuban treaty, they think they can keep out the sugar of other countries and thus pay themselves for their magnanimity in admitting Cuban sugar at a small reduction from the Dingley rates. Perhaps the Democrats in the Senate may checkmate that move.

Washington oracles agree that the outlook for anti-Trust legislation comes down to about this: A law of some kind must be passed, for the President himself has said it; but it must be a "mild" law, for the Senate will permit no other. The sole problem is, therefore, how to harmonize the two demands; and it is not difficult to see that the "mild" opponents of Trusts, like the meek, will inherit the earth. Mr. Roosevelt's position is simply that he must have something; the Trusts want but little legislation here below, but want that little mild; the upshot will probably be a measure which will roar as gently as a sucking dove. The President's friends are using the argument that the corporations would be wise to make terms, since if they do not accept a mild-mannered bill, they will have to take one much more "drastic." But what does that threat mean? That the Democrats are to be brought into power to pass the drastic law? By the very supposition, the Republican party is to be prevented from doing it. But no such considerations have any proper place in the discussion. If there ought to be a drastic law at all, it ought to be passed at once, not held as a club over the heads of the Trusts to compel them to take something short of full justice. Let all the pending bills be supported or rejected on their merits, and not pushed by talk of worse to come if these fail.

The army is singularly fortunate with its reform legislation this year. Not only is the general staff bill well on its way through Congress, but the Senate passed last week the Militia Bill, which has already gone through the House. The Senate struck out one of the most important sections—that providing a reserve of 100,000 men who have been honorably discharged from the army, the volunteers, or the National Guard. These were to be required to report once a year to some officer of the War Department during an enrolment of five years. For this

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reporting each reserve man was to receive $10 annually. This was the most radical feature of the Dick bill, which has represented Secretary Root's views from the beginning, and, as a new departure in American military procedure, it met with considerable opposition. Even without this, there is much of importance left in the bill as passed. It takes the place of long antiquated legislation, some of it dating back a hundred years. It defines the status of the militia as a body which may be used only to suppress insurrection or repel invasion for a period of three months. In other respects it creates a machinery by means of which volunteer armies may be promptly and properly raised and officered on the outbreak of war. It is distinctly the result of the military failures, miscarriages, and mistakes of the war with Spain, and should do much for the improvement of our State troops.

It is painful to record another interruption of the smooth and easy flow of private pension legislation in the House. As might be supposed, the trouble was caused by an inexperienced member, unfamiliar with the requirements of courtesy and mutual consideration on such occasions. Almost at the beginning of a recent pension-day session, Mr. Russell of Texas rose to call the attention of the House to the rapid increase in the number of private pensions granted by Congress. He even had the temerity to reduce his information to statistical form, showing that in 1898 Congress passed 394 private pension bills, carrying $67,014; in 1899, 300, carrying $45,186; in 1900, 684, carrying $117,759; in 1901, 707, carrying $120,192; and in 1902, 1,114, carrying $182,825. Not content with the unpleasant impression caused by these uncalled-for summaries, he alluded most inconsiderately to the current calendar of the House. On the calendar for January 5, he pointed out, there were 54 private pension bills. By January 7 these had been increased to 116, and by January 9 to 144. If this rate of increase continued, Mr. Russell feared, members would not be able to vote understandingly on the bills as they came up.

The idea that any member should want to examine a private pension bill naturally created a general laugh. Mr. Russell, however, was not permitted to get off with mere ridicule. Mr. Sulloway of New Hampshire and Mr. Grosvenor of Ohio questioned him sharply. Did he know anything about the pending bill? He admitted that he did not, declaring that the inability of members to examine all the private pension bills was the very point of his protest. But Mr. Sulloway and Mr. Grosvenor showed how barefaced was this attempt to dodge. If he knew nothing about the pending bill, why had he injected himself into the discussion? Would he tell them that? But Mr. Russell had sunk back into his seat, properly overwhelmed. The debate became general. Mr. Grosvenor engaged in a personal wrangle with Mr. Gaines of Tennessee, and Mr. Russell's figures were happily forgotten. Just to make sure that the irrelevant remarks of a new member from Texas had not thrown the House off its balance, it increased the already liberal allowances made by the Pension Committee.

In declining to exchange his arduous post for the Supreme Court Bench, Gov. Taft has given another admirable example of true devotion to duty. It will be remembered that he went back to the Philippines last spring with the fear that he might not survive the effects of a second stay in the climate of the archipelago. Now he has put aside the high office which he has long regarded as the goal of his ambition, in order to stick to his task as Governor-General. Failing Judge Taft, it is announced that the President will appoint Judge William R. Day of Ohio to the Supreme Court. This would be, it is presumed, in pursuance of the late Mr. McKinley's wishes and promise. Mr. Day has had a respectable if not distinguished career on the bench, and if the appointment must go to his circuit, it is possible that no better man in the line of promotion could be found. On the great Constitutional questions connected with Imperialism which in one way or another must again come before the Supreme Court, Judge Day is supposedly in accord with those who maintain that new blunders require new judicial opinions. That he was strongly against the annexation of the Philippines, appears in his dispatches from Paris as Peace Commissioner. He flatly told President McKinley that annexation was opposed both to "the spirit of our instructions" and to the "declared disinterestedness of purpose and freedom from designs of conquest with which the war was undertaken." Later, when the President insisted that the Commissioners demand the Philippines by the stark right of conquest, Mr. Day agreed with Senator Davis in holding such a claim to be valid neither in law nor in morals. One sees, then, how much he will have to live down if he expects to recover the good opinion of Imperialists.

A funereal atmosphere hung over the proceedings of the caucus which renominated Platt. Not one enthusiastic word was uttered; not a cheer raised. Like slaves flogged to their task, the Republicans present carried out their orders. It was a cheerless, depressing ceremony, and it has fallen like a wet blanket on the whole State. One perfectly heartless feature of the vote for Platt deserves comment. His supporters confidently expect him to die soon. They speak of him as already tottering on the edge of the grave, and say that his death will in a few months give the Senatorship back to them to dispose of as they please. Anything more inhuman than this measuring of the waning strength of a man whom they believe to be near his end it would be difficult to imagine. The Republican managers gloat over Platt's bodily and mental infirmities, and reckon up the days till he will be gone. For our part, we hope that he will live to serve out his term. We would not spare the Republican party one hour of the disgrace which his continued presence in the Senate brings upon it.

News from Senatorial contests reads very like news from the seat of war. Both Colorado and Delaware are as excited as if they were on the verge of civil strife—and perhaps they are. The Addicks people have threatened bloodshed; and in Denver armed men are guarding the various factions. Why should such giant passions be aroused? It is not a mere party advantage that is involved. The Republicans are safely in control of the Senate at Washington, no matter who may be chosen in Delaware or Colorado. What we see, in both cases, is something madder than partisan excitement. It is the mania of gamblers. Addicks and Wolcott are playing for enormous stakes. They think they see vast winnings in sight, and desperately call upon their frantic followers to lose no point in the game. This is the sort of spirit which makes too many Senatorial struggles take on the air of a contest between rival bandits; and which is undoubtedly intensifying the general feeling in favor of an election of Senators by popular vote.

Gov. Murphy of New Jersey comes to the defence of Trusts with refreshing frankness. He has no patience with "the clamor of the demagogue" (meaning President Roosevelt) who "needlessly alarms the people" by questioning "the power of the nation to deal adequately with its own." Who is the Trust's own, the Governor leaves in little doubt when he proposes a law to cut off the stockholder's remedy of seeking to "enjoin corporations or others in this State from carrying out plans adopted by them." This he would do by requiring the litigant to give an indemnity bond before applying for a writ of injunction. In no other respect do the corporation laws of New Jersey need amendment, according to the Governor. They would be absolutely perfect if they only made impossible such effective interference as the Steel Trust and the Prudential merger met with in New Jersey courts. Gov. Murphy's pæan in praise of Trusts will ex-

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cite varying emotions in different quarters. The President, Senator Hoar, and Attorney-General Knox will be somewhat chagrined to learn that they have been getting so excited over just nothing at all. And when the irate people out West who think they are suffering from the operation of New Jersey charters, learn from the Governor that his State has "justly won the confidence of the country," they will think that he has exemplified his own saying that "it is time to clear the air."

The Governor of Indiana having removed the Sheriff who permitted a mob to take from him and lynch a negro prisoner, that delinquent is making strong efforts to nullify the law under which the Governor acted. When the Sheriff asked for reinstatement, Gov. Durbin himself listened to the testimony on both sides, and then declared that the removal was eminently justified. The Sheriff, having been chosen again at the last election, insists that he is still in office, and is acting as a county official; but it is plainly the duty of the State to oust him by force if necessary. Then he may have the constitutionality of the law tested in the proper way. The case is one of great interest, not only in Indiana, but elsewhere. The Governor acted promptly and courageously, and there can be no doubt that, if the law is upheld, it will have a tonic effect on many sheriffs, even in other counties and States, who might sympathize with lynchers. In Sheriff Dudley's case it appeared that he declined to fire on the mob because he thought the lives of the lynchers more valuable than that of the negro.

The shooting of Editor Gonzales by Lieut.-Gov. Tillman at Columbia is regarded as atrocious even by South Carolinian standards, since prompt measures had to be taken to prevent the lynching of the prisoner. What is wanted next is a fair trial of Tillman and a legal punishment—execution by hanging, since Gonzales has succumbed. But we doubt whether any penalty will be inflicted. Several years ago the most distinguished editor in the State, a man of high character, was assassinated in Charleston in broad daylight by a man whose degraded propensities had been interfered with by the editor not in the columns of his newspaper, but in the course of his duty as a citizen. The assassin received no adequate punishment. A passenger in the cars from Louisville to New Orleans, in the month of November last, buying newspapers from place to place, counted six violent deaths along his route, all occurring in a single day. And yet many think that we are peculiarly fit to take charge of the destinies of semi-barbarous people on the other side of the globe, and lead them into the orderly ways of civilized life.

Mr. Morgan's description of the so-called "Louisville deal," in his testimony before the Interstate Commission, is fully as interesting as his description of the Northern Pacific corner, in the Power suit last March. The details of the remarkable performances with the Louisville and Nashville Railroad shares have, to be sure, been given before. Every one knew already that a reckless group of speculators, known in Wall Street as the "Gates pool," had bought up, last spring, 306,000 out of the company's 600,000 shares of stock. They apparently paid a price some 20 to 40 per cent. above previous market values; at all events, the shares rose from 102 to 146. At one time, a Stock Exchange "corner," resembling that of May, 1901, was threatened, the "pool" having bought 50,000 shares newly issued by the Louisville Company and sold by its brokers, and the new shares having turned out not a "good delivery" in fulfilment of Stock Exchange contracts. The stock-jobbers had undoubtedly bought with borrowed money, as they did again, with disastrous results, in the autumn months. But they had the shares, and the banking houses, fearing trouble to their other enterprises either in the stock market or in the railway world, induced the stockjobbing ring to part with its Louisville holdings. The ransom paid was heavy. For the "pool's" $30,600,000 stock—whose highest value, even in the great speculation of 1901, had been only 113—a price of $150 was paid last fall by the banking interests, the requisite capital being raised by the Atlantic Coast Line. This $42,000,000 corporation promptly issued $15,000,000 new stock and $35,000,000 fifty-year bonds to get the money, and thereby became the owner of the Louisville.

The passengers of the *St. Louis* and their friends and relatives have a just grievance against the International Navigation Company. Not in the history of steam traffic between Europe and this continent has there been so disgraceful an occurrence on a ship which is ranked as first-class. The company's manager seeks to explain that it should not be held responsible for an accident that took place after the ship was at sea. But he cannot deny that it was determined six months ago to replace the *St. Louis's* worn-out boilers, and that she has been kept in service ever since with steadily failing boiler power. Moreover, her outward trip was so long that she was started back again after only being twenty-four hours in port—an insufficient time, as everybody familiar with ships knows, to clean the vessel, much less to overhaul her boilers properly and perform the necessary repairs done in every engine room after a transatlantic run. So the *St. Louis* began her voyage home with boilers in such condition that she might never have reached port had she encountered a gale on the day she made a bare hundred miles or so. A well-managed line guards against such contingencies by having enough ships and by keeping them in good condition. Now the company finds itself reduced to two fast ships, although by favoritism of the authorities it has carried a large percentage of mails and secured more pay for them than any other, and received enormous payments for the use of its ships in the war with Spain. We understand now why this line has been the leading beggar for ship subsidies.

Emperor William's open patronage of some of the most radical of the higher critics of the Bible is a proof rather of his versatility than of his caution. Even in Germany, they are a little shy of seeing the indebtedness of the Old Testament to Assyrian and Egyptian ideas laid bare. In theological circles in this country, the name of Professor Delitszch has been one with which to affright the timid. There, you see what you are coming to with your audacious inquiries—turning the book of Daniel into a Chaldean myth, and making out Javeh to be a Babylonian conception! American theological students still go to Germany, however, on fellowships, though they are expected to return without the smell of heretical learning upon their garments.

Henri de Blowitz, whose death has followed closely his resignation from the Paris office of the London *Times*, was practically the last of the great correspondents of the old school. No one for years has more willingly assumed the oracular tone, no one so fearlessly made of prophecy a daily duty. But this was always true of Blowitz, that, while the average correspondent dealt in the appearance (quoting indifferently "the highest authority," "a sure source," or "a prominent personage"), he had in reality the secret springs of news. His French citizenship and social relations gave him access of the freest sort to the political world, and he kept about himself a curious little world of talebearers, adventurers, artists seeking notoriety, employees of those in great place—in general, all that part of Paris which has "exclusive intelligence" to give or to sell at a price. Though professionally he lived much in this dubious world, his own probity was beyond question. It was unfortunate as regards his permanent fame as a writer for the press, that his dispatches appeared not in French, but in the English of a London *Times* translator; and it must be said that his official solemnity was seldom relieved by wit. Indeed, he scorned the graces of the journalist, and undoubtedly felt that his letters must assume something of the form of state papers.

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FREE COAL AND THE FUTURE OF THE TARIFF.

The debate in the Senate on January 13, on the question of putting coal on the free list of the tariff, brought into sharp collision Senators Dolliver of Iowa and Aldrich of Rhode Island, both Republicans. Mr. Dolliver represents the "Iowa idea" of tariff legislation—that when a given rate of duty is so high as to favor monopoly, it should be reduced, and when it is no longer needed, it should be repealed. The Iowa idea contains another postulate even more important in a self-governing republic—that it is the privilege of every man in public or private life to exercise his own judgment, to express his own opinion on the question whether the tariff tends to produce monopoly or to oppress the consumer or not. Mr. Aldrich stands for the opposing doctrine—that anybody who objects to any particular item in the tariff is opposed to the doctrine of protection. Not even the President of the United States is privileged to do so.

In the case in hand, the Senator from Rhode Island attacked the reciprocity treaties negotiated by the McKinley Administration and now supported by Roosevelt, saying that he (Aldrich) "never expected that a Republican Administration would negotiate treaties which would strike at the heart of protection." But Mr. Aldrich had intimated the previous day that he would support a measure to put coal on the free list for one year. So it appears that there are some things which may be done even in the way of amending the tariff, provided *our* consent be first obtained. Mr. Dolliver, not having the fear of any high priest before his eyes, adheres to the Iowa idea, and intends to use his voice and his vote just as though Aldrich did not exist.

The immediate subject of debate was the reassertion by Mr. Dolliver of the fact that the rates of the Dingley tariff were intentionally put higher than needful so as to leave room for treaties of reciprocity. Thus, for example, a rate of 50 per cent. would be sufficient, in the estimation of Dingley, for all decent purposes of protection, but it would be put in the bill at 60 per cent. in order to "come down" in favor of France, in return for some similar concession in the French tariff. This, by the way, has been the avowed policy of France and other countries of Continental Europe for many years—the policy of maximum and minimum tariffs. Enact your regular rates of duty on the maximum scale, and then say to other nations: "We will admit your goods on the minimum scale, provided you will make similar concessions to our goods." Nobody ever imagined that there was anything dishonorable in such a policy. On the contrary, it was held by statesmen and publicists of all schools to be defensible and even commendable in certain cases. Free traders looked upon it as preferable to Chinese wall tariffs, and protectionists held it to be necessary to have a tariff margin of this kind to serve as the basis of negotiation, and to secure what they conceived to be justice to themselves.

The Dingley tariff was undoubtedly framed with this idea. Such a policy would not be at all surprising, seeing that the reciprocity idea had been embodied in the McKinley tariff of 1890 at the suggestion of Secretary Blaine, and on the motion of Senator Aldrich himself. Yet when Senator Vest, a few days since, mentioned the fact in a guileless way as something well known, Mr. Aldrich charged Vest with an assault on the memory of the dead. He said that Vest was imputing dishonorable motives to Dingley, now in his grave and unable to defend himself. He (Aldrich) would hurl back the degrading charge and protect the memory of the departed statesman. On Tuesday week Senator Dolliver repeated what Vest had said as to the rates of duty in the Dingley bill. He spoke of his own knowledge, and denied that any taint of dishonor attached to a policy that is in practice in almost every country of Europe. To this Mr. Aldrich replied that if any friend of Gov. Dingley could remain silent while such charges were made against him, he did not understand that person's idea of honor. The public appreciation of Mr. Aldrich's sense of honor, always keen, will no doubt be much augmented by this outburst.

Meanwhile public opinion has forced the repeal of the tricky anthracite duty, and a rebate of duties on all kinds of coal for one year. This action, however, gives us but a crumb when we need a whole loaf. An impartial observer from the outside, looking before and after, would perceive the crying need of a large revision of our laws affecting—and crippling—commerce, both domestic and international. He would see this country getting into more and more awkward relations with its customers and its feeders. One of our laws cuts off a Russian trade; another harasses our exporters to Germany; a third shuts us out as far as may be from the great market lying to the north of us. In place of a fragmentary measure, jerkily done into law, in place of a miserable hand-to-mouth opportunism, we have a right to look for a broad commercial and financial policy. It is not necessary to appeal to the foreign observer to pronounce the proper verdict on our folly. We have men among ourselves to see the thing as it is. One of them is President James J. Hill of the Great Northern Railway. Whatever else may be said of him, he is a man of capacious mind and large comprehension of the commercial problems which confront this nation. Knowing the West and Southwest intimately, at home on the Pacific slope, keenly alive to Canadian development, and with plans which lay hold on New England and the Orient, he has, if any man has, a vivid appreciation of what should be done to enable the country to rise to the full height of its great opportunity. And what does he urge? Why, a general lowering of our tariff walls. At the reception to the Canadian Minister, Mr. Sifton, given by the Commercial Club of St. Paul, on January 10, Mr. Hill spoke up in the plainest way for the removal of duties from lumber, as well as coal and all raw materials, and in general, for so "modifying our tariff conditions" that trade will flow in its natural channels. President Hill was particularly emphatic about the need of an enlarged foreign market. We manufacture goods to the value of $13,000,000,000; we export only $440,000,000 worth. "Can we go on as a nation trading with ourselves, and getting money from one pocket into another, and get rich?" We must lift up our eyes, There, to the north of us, lies Canada, already one of our best customers, and ready to expand our trade relations indefinitely. She is inhabited by people who speak our language and know our methods, is a country where law is enforced and debts can be collected; yet "here on our Northern border we have a fence to keep them out, and now we shall have to build another fence to keep our own people in." Neglecting or coolly cutting off this great market at our doors, we spend millions to get a foothold in some far island where the trade of a century would not equal the Canadian trade of ten years; and if anybody proposes a change in the laws which shut us out from our own, he is scoffed at as a wicked free trader, or, if he is a Republican President, is told by Senator Aldrich that he is "striking at the heart of protection"!

It is this large demand of a critical hour which makes the recent grant by Congress, welcome as it is in itself, appear so beggarly. More than a year ago, President McKinley marked out a programme of general tariff reduction in order "to extend and promote our markets abroad." Nothing has been done, except to quail before public clamor long enough to repeal the coal duties. There is a lesson for Mr. Roosevelt in this. He urged making anthracite free, and that has now been done; but suppose that he had entered into the large conception of President McKinley, and, instead of belittling tariff reform, had struck out boldly for reciprocity and the freeing of commerce, would he not have made much better headway than he has done with his chosen anti-Trust programme? He would, at any rate, have shown himself a leader alive to the needs of our situation.

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PATERNALISTIC FINANCE.

Mr. J. P. Morgan's testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission on Thursday last was of far more than ephemeral significance. It explained primarily the means by which he had baffled the notorious speculator, Gates, temporarily in control of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad; but, taken together with Mr. Morgan's statements in the Northern Securities case of last March, it gave inferentially a complete theory of financial control of great corporations. Some have called Mr. Morgan's theory paternalistic. It might almost equally as well be called aristocratic or oligarchical, for it is based upon a profound distrust of democratic methods of corporation control. Everywhere, in his responses at the inquiry of last Thursday, appeared his conviction that there is a class whose plenary qualifications for managing great interests are generally recognized. He spoke frankly of the Louisville and Nashville transfer as dictated by "a personal interest of my own in the maintenance of the general business situation throughout the country." Equally remarkable with this perhaps justifiable presentation of himself as *deus ex machina*, or saviour of society, was his assertion that Mr. Gates was not a "proper person" to manage the Louisville and Nashville (an opinion in which all will heartily concur), and his expression of solicitude that the stock which he then held in trust should be placed in "safe hands." These terms must be interpreted in the light of all the recent manœuvring for control of railroads. So interpreted, "proper persons" are those who assent to the plan of an emergency committee, and "safe hands" are those which obey unfailingly a particular behest. That under this theory temporary emergencies of a very grave sort have been successfully met, and an unexpected degree of financial stability attained, nobody can question. But the theory must be weighed in full recognition of the fact that other patriarchs, certainly of less ability, and conceivably of less principle, must in due time succeed Mr. Morgan; how will paternalistic finance work under these ordinary conditions and through these average personalities?

The paternalistic theory sets up as rulers a competent oligarchy to check the depravity of speculative freebooters and the folly of the owners of corporate securities. It entreats the latter to surrender their vote, that is, their power, and it browbeats them on occasion, when they wish to be heard in stockholders' meeting. A considerable degree of oppression seems inseparable from the paternalistic idea. The inducement offered the *plebs* of finance to make it part with power and money is, that the power will be more wisely exerted and the money more judiciously spent by the governing class. The theory is that it is well for the shareholder to contribute, but evil to have any hand in the management of the property for which he has paid. The numerous voting trusts mean this or nothing. Long before Mr. Morgan's time the case against the mere shareholder was trenchantly put by Machiavelli in his 'Discourses on the Decades of Titus Livy.' The Florentine publicist writes that two things are to be noted of popular government:

"The first is that the people, deceived very often by a false conception of what is good for it, desires its own ruin; and if not instructed by some one in whom it has faith as to what is good and what bad, infinite perils and injuries come upon the republic. And when destiny brings it about that the people trusts in no one, as happens at times, having been deceived in the past by events or by men, it inevitably goes to ruin."

Nobody will deny that financial, like political, control should be in the hands of the competent, nor that stable conditions in either field depend upon a certain faith on the part of the people in those set over them in authority. Where most thoughtful persons will part company with Machiavelli and Mr. Morgan is at the assertion that there is, broadly speaking, any better way of choosing our competent rulers than the democratic way. The inconveniences and even the perils of a plébiscite, whether of citizens or of stockholders, nobody will underestimate; but these perils seem small in comparison with those of an oligarchy or a despotism, however benevolent. Then, have we a natural governing class in finance, as by divine right? Can we believe that the temptations of financial control are less than those of political control? Have the events of the past two years—the reckless warfare of precisely the persons we are now asked to accept as the guardians of financial peace, the readiness of our *de facto* rulers in finance to accept the directorial name without assuming directorial responsibility, and to advance inordinate sums for stockjobbing on a perilous scale—have these facts, patent to all men, shown that we have a financial aristocracy so honest and so intelligent that it can safely dispense with the shrewd scrutiny and workaday criticism of the average investor? Granted that, under Mr. Morgan's paternal dispensation, we prosper and are cared for: could we trust his associates in perpetuity? Could we safely give up our right to turn out the rulers when they do ill? Could Mr. Morgan himself, had he the nine lives of a cat, safely trust himself with such power for more than one of them?

Mr. Morgan's financial philosophy points, we submit, to a better world than has ever been or ever will be. It is an attempt to eliminate from finance that average human weakness which in other fields is accepted as inevitable and dealt with as part of the day's work. It is in essence an endeavor to make transactions, necessarily difficult and contentious, artificially simple and unanimous. So radiant a counsel of perfection cannot be criticised with any unkindness. But its essential Utopianism should not be accepted as sound finance simply because it is the Utopianism of a great financier.

CANTEEN LEGISLATION TO WAIT.

The decision of the House Committee on Military Affairs that there shall be no canteen legislation by this Congress, defers the question of the sale of beer at army posts for another year. This is but fair to opponents of the Government's supplying drink to its soldiers, who induced Congress to appropriate $500,000 for recreation and amusement buildings, and who seek to interest and occupy the soldier in this way without recourse to spirituous liquors. The board of officers appointed to distribute this appropriation among the more important posts has only just concluded its labors, so that the work of construction can hardly be completed for another year. Among the important awards are $125,000 to Fort Myer, near Washington, for a building which shall contain a gymnasium, shooting gallery, swimming pool, bowling alleys, shower baths, etc. Smaller allotments have been made for the ten largest posts now garrisoned. In each case there will be provided club, reading, and recreation rooms, by which the enlisted men should be particularly attracted.

The Board has, however, set nothing aside for the benefit of the soldiers in the Philippines, where the need of entertainment and the temptations to loose living are far greater than in this country. The elaborate building at Fort Myer should enable Congressmen to see for themselves how a temperance club works, and also the necessity in every post for entertainment rooms similar to those in vogue in all important English garrisons. But a true test of the efficacy of these "exchanges" cannot, obviously, be made for two or three years. Whether they will serve the whole purpose for which they are intended remains to be seen; they cannot, however, fail to do much for the enlisted men wherever they are erected, and Congress should support the policy by additional and liberal appropriations.

Meanwhile, the War Department can, by various means, do much to increase the sobriety and orderliness of the army—now, according to the Judge-Advocate-General, at a low ebb. For instance, it can (1) call upon local authorities near army posts to abolish the low groggeries around them under threat of removing the garrisons; (2) it can hold commanding officers responsible for the conduct of their commands—an expedient never yet tried; (3) it can in-

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sist upon the home garrisons being worked harder and kept occupied, as in foreign services; (4) it can improve the quality of its recruits and raise the age standard for enlistment; (5) it can stimulate company commanders to be true "fathers" to their men; (6) it can place additional responsibilities upon non-commissioned officers for the good conduct of their men, as is done in the English army with excellent results; and (7) it can devise a better system of giving troops their money than that of paying a whole garrison at a time. Should the War Department throw the weight of its great influence in this direction, there would be a marked improvement in the morals of the men, and, we believe, a great decrease in the number of courts-martial. There are to-day very few company officers who really feel a moral responsibility for the welfare and contentment of their men, particularly among the several thousand new officers who served first in the easy-going volunteers.

One forward step has already been taken in the direction of increasing the interest in athletics in the army. In several of the military departments into which the United States is geographically divided, orders have been issued designating one day in each month as a field day to be devoted to athletic games and exercises. There are to be individual and team competitions. Baseball and football are favored, as well as military events such as tent-pitching contests, the construction of emergency bridges, etc. Wrestling, boxing, fencing, running, and jumping are to be particularly encouraged. Undoubtedly this will help a great deal, especially in the direction of company and regimental pride. To this end competitions between posts and regiments are urged. But a much more pressing need is that of further military drill and exercises to keep the men happy and to occupy more hours. There is probably no standing army in the world which drills so little as ours. Before the war with Spain, there were many posts where all drills and marches were suspended from November until April, and this vicious condition still obtains in a considerable number of garrisons. In the Continental armies, the men go to bed night after night physically fatigued, and are the better for it in every way.

Whatever the final decision as to the beer canteen, the changes suggested above are of vital importance if the service is really to be made as efficient as it ought to be. However sincerely the War Department may believe in the sale of beer as a cure-all for the restlessness and intemperance of the soldier, it cannot shirk its obvious responsibilities merely because Congress declines to accept its view. That Congressmen take the attitude they do in face of the fact that a majority of the officers favor a return to the post saloon, is probably because of their being in so much closer touch with the feeling and wishes of the public than the army itself. To attribute their refusal to take up the question merely to the activities of the temperance societies is very complimentary to the latter—especially in view of the two years which must elapse before there is another Congressional election. The Committee's decision not to bring the matter up is, therefore, a distinct victory for those opposed to the sale of beer. Delay makes in their favor for more reasons than one. For instance, we think the readjustment of the army to its new conditions, along with the decrease in the garrison in the Philippines, will make next year's statistics of crime and drunkenness in the service vastly more favorable than this year's, which proved that one in every twenty of our defenders was tried and punished for military wrongdoing or for crime. Moreover, every postponement of action will make Congressmen more reluctant to reopen a matter which arouses intense feeling upon both sides, and which is popularly supposed to affect the votes of a great many earnest and high-minded citizens.

A CLEARING-HOUSE FOR PHILANTHROPISTS.

One of the most praiseworthy aims of the General Education Board is to make itself a clearing-house for the benefit of all who desire to contribute to the cause of Southern education. For this purpose it has established its office in this city, and has set about collecting material which will in time enable it to furnish complete statistics to any one desirous of investigating any school of any kind in the whole South. At the same time it will itself seek information as to the places where there is the greatest need of new schools or of money for old institutions.

This will enable it to perform a variety of valuable services. It will be in a position not merely to advise an intending patron that an institution is really wisely administered and efficient, but to warn him not to waste his money upon a school which is undesirable, in either its methods or its aims. In this way it hopes to run to earth or to render harmless a number of collectors who besiege the generous-minded in our Northern cities, ostensibly on behalf of struggling negro schools, but really in the interest of their own living expenses. This in itself would be a public benefit, for the number of such impostors is far greater than is currently believed. They profit by the prestige of the really worthy institutions, such as Hampton and Tuskegee, and are secure because of the difficulty of obtaining reliable information. Even when an institution is known to be in a good field, and to be working in the right direction, its patrons are apt to be in total ignorance of the worth of its actual administration or of its teaching force.

But the General Education Board has still higher aims. Its members recognize the economic wastefulness of the present methods of collecting funds. More and more canvassers come North every year whose expenses frequently make the cost of collections entirely too high. These agents get in each other's way, are often deeply humiliated by having to beg as they do, and frequently, by their numbers, almost drive into hiding those known to be generous. As in the case of Mr. Washington, the necessity of raising funds by personal appeals often deprives a school of a most valuable executive for a large part of the school year. The General Board hopes soon to address an appeal to the public of the North to make its donations through the Board. If we understand its plans aright, it will undertake to expend wisely gifts of one dollar or of a million dollars, and to render a strict accounting for all the funds it receives. Still another step would be for it to eliminate all canvassers and to ask at stated periods for donations for all worthy Southern institutions. The high character of the Board and its organization on a business-like basis, with the same kind of management as that given to an up-to-date railroad, should insure it not merely a hearty response from the philanthropic public, but the thanks of both applicants and donors.

Why could not a similar plan be followed by the charitable and philanthropic institutions of this city? For some years past there has been a steadily growing movement towards coöperation of that sort. Two years ago some meetings were held with this end in view, and there is now on foot an alliance of societies and clubs in the hope of making their influence in the coming Mayoralty campaign as effective as possible. While no permanent organizations have been formed as yet, charitable workers are beginning to see the advantages of coöperation, if only for self-protection. This was shown last winter by the readiness with which various societies came together to oppose Gov. Odell's bills relating to the State's institutions. But in the field of large charity there has as yet been no sign of that tendency towards consolidation which is so striking a feature of our industrial life. The number of charitable concerts, "smokers," entertainments, balls, fairs, and lectures grows distractingly every winter. Here, too, the cost of collection is very great. The printing of annual reports, of appeals for aid, the cost of postage, and the pay of hired workers are items that mount up rapidly. There is not even coördination between workers in the same sphere. The social settlements, for instance, seek each their

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means of support in their own way, without reference to the needs of their neighbors—sometimes, we fear, regarded as rivals. Would not the growth of these valuable institutions be still larger and more advantageous if directed by business men through a central office? We are certain that such a union, even if merely a loose one, could overlook the whole field sufficiently to insure distinct economies of means and effort.

The suggestion is by no means a chimerical one. In Liverpool the Charity Organization Society appeals to the public on January first on behalf of every charitable undertaking in the city, except the purely religious societies. Every body thus appealed for, pledges itself to make no individual canvass for two months. This plan, which has worked well, was initiated by the Mayor, and there has been no difficulty in dividing the large funds thus raised. A somewhat similar movement, involving, however, the public institutions, has been tried in Denver, while the London Charity Organization Society, the pioneer association of its kind, frequently acts as the agent of generous persons who give annually a specified sum, but who wish neither the labor nor the responsibility of investing it wisely. What has been done elsewhere can certainly be done here. In the very nature of things, and in view of the astonishing growth of altruistic movements of every kind—in itself one of the most striking signs of the world's progress upwards—the present haphazard, happy-go-lucky system of dunning the generous must be amended unless we are to see the prompt organization of a "Philanthropists' Protective Association, Limited."

THE LATE EX-MAYOR HEWITT.

In the course of a life of more than eighty years, Mr. Abram S. Hewitt had acquired an authority over the minds of his fellow-citizens such as few kings enjoy. Among all the mayors known to the present generation of New Yorkers, he was the only one who gained greater influence after leaving office than he held before. Ordinarily, the man who holds the chief place in the municipality falls into comparative obscurity after leaving it, especially if he has been a candidate for reëlection and been defeated, as was Mr. Hewitt. The Democratic party which, to escape defeat, had nominated him in 1886, turned against him two years later. The Republicans who had supported him in 1886, nominated a candidate of their own, expecting to snatch a victory from the division of their adversaries. Thus it happened that, in his second campaign, which fell in a Presidential year, when party lines were tightly drawn, he ran on his personal strength only. Yet he received 71,000 votes from the substantial citizens of the metropolis who do their own thinking, pay their own way, and strive to keep the civic atmosphere clean.

Thus it was that, after leaving the Mayoralty, he still held the foremost place in the confidence and regard of the community. In every civic enterprise of magnitude he was among the first to be consulted. All charitable and educational movements looked to him for advice and help. All things that bore his stamp were recognized as sterling. Anything to which he put his shoulder was almost certain to move forward. In the Chamber of Commerce his counsel was sought on all difficult questions, and here his influence was unrivalled. Every topic that he saw fit to discuss was handled in a masterly manner. He marshalled his facts in faultless English and with logical precision. In public speech he was never at a loss for a word, and when he had finished one of his impromptu addresses in the Chamber or out of it, the listeners were always charmed and generally convinced. The reporters of the press, too, recognized his worth, and were forever attempting to interview him, because they knew that whatever he said would be eagerly read by the public.

Although best known as ex-Mayor Hewitt, his municipal service was not the most important part of his work. He had had a previous career of public usefulness and business celebrity that had made him widely known at home and abroad. His first political service was in the reorganization of Tammany Hall in 1871, after the downfall of the Tweed ring. This work was recognized by an election to a seat in Congress in 1874, a position which he held during the next ten years, except for one term when he declined to run. He was Chairman of the Democratic National Committee in the Presidential campaign of 1876, in which Tilden and Hayes were the opposing candidates. The Democrats carried the four Northern States of Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Indiana, and Mr. Hewitt's sagacity and energy and character contributed largely to those successes. When the country was threatened with civil commotion in consequence of the closeness of the vote, his voice was for a peaceful mode of adjustment.

During Mr. Hewitt's Congressional service the fight over the currency question was unceasing and often bitter, and it was his fate to be one of a small minority of sound-money men in his own party; but he never swerved. Whether the prevailing craze was for paying bonds with greenbacks, or for remonetizing silver, or for coining Bland dollars, or for taxing United States bonds, or for worrying the national banks, he was always on the side of good faith and an honest dollar. He was also an aggressive fighter for the principles he espoused. There was not a keener, stronger, readier debater on the floor of Congress. There was also a vein of humor in his composition which not seldom came to the surface in his Congressional speeches, making him one of the men to whom other members were always attracted. He was admirably equipped by study and business experience to discuss the economical questions of the day, such as money, banking, tariffs, public debts, manufactures, commerce, and taxation. On these and kindred subjects he was equally ready on the stump, and, although not a frequent speaker, was always an effective one. His best oration is the one which he delivered at the opening of the Brooklyn Bridge, a masterly production from all points of view.

In a life of such varied usefulness it is not easy to single out the one thing by which he was most distinguished, but we should not be far wrong in pointing to his efforts in behalf of education as one of the most important ends to which he devoted his powers. The Cooper Institute was the object of his solicitude and unwearying energy for forty years. Columbia University was proud to count him as trustee and chairman of its leading committee; and the last and greatest distinction which came to him in this part of his career was that of presiding officer of the Carnegie Institution—an honor conferred by the unanimous choice of its trustees.

In private life Mr. Hewitt was one of the most attractive of men. Although a martyr to insomnia for twenty-five years, his spirits were generally buoyant, his conversation animated, and his sense of humor unfailing. At his country home on the Ringwood estate he practised a generous and graceful hospitality, the charms of which no one who shared it can ever forget. His business life was signalized by an unusual honor bestowed by a joint convention of the Iron and Steel Associations of England and the United States, who conferred upon him the Bessemer gold medal for services in promoting metallurgical science. The works of Cooper, Hewitt & Co. have always been a model, and have never had a strike among their workmen. The Trenton shops have often been run for long periods without profit, and sometimes at a loss, in order to keep the men and their families from suffering.

A career of such varied activity and usefulness it has seldom been our duty to chronicle. Such a life does not end when the mortal remains are deposited in the tomb. It abides with us as a guide and inspiration to those who now live, and to those who shall come after.

OBSERVATIONS IN A BIG UNIVERSITY.

I.

January, 1903.

The university in question is a State university in the Far West, and the observations are made by a woman in the early

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thirties, unmarried, a graduate of an Eastern woman's college, Agatha Grayson by name. Why she came to live in the town of Westerley, as we will call it, and, as a result, to study in the university, is unimportant to this article. At all events, once there, she found her mind dwelling on the problems that the university suggested, to the exclusion of her own private affairs. The big, free, coeducational university struck her as an institution distinctly modern and characteristically American. Therefore, it was not surprising that the conditions were perplexing, that the problems were baffling, that the evils were so great as to set her wondering if there were compensations large enough to balance them.

As it happened, she had been reading Amiel's 'Journal' for the first time, and certain passages over which she had passed blindly, with eye unquickened by the knowledge behind all seeing, came back to her with vague, haunting insistence; and now, reread and understood in the light of her new experience, she found herself verifying them. "'Commonness will prevail,' as De Candolle said in speaking of the graminaceous plants. The era of equality means the triumph of mediocrity." "Commonness will prevail!" Agatha found herself repeating the phrase in a sense other than Amiel's as she looked about her on the campus, in the library and classrooms, seeing everywhere faces and tones that remained uneducated in spite of the piles of books under the arms. Was a course of study a success that left a boy or girl still saying, "Yer not a'goin' to," or "awful tired"; that had no power to soften an over-robust "r" or to refine the tone of voice? Were students in the future to lose the stamp that in the past had been recognized as indicating a university education? Were their four years to stand for nothing but a certain amount of information? Was the student to be no higher up the ladder of humanity at the end than at the beginning? Were education and culture to be hopelessly divorced henceforth?

The thought came to Agatha that perhaps she had been overestimating the absolute refining value of education. Perhaps the value had lain more in the association that education had brought about than in the books themselves, and in the extension of education such association was minimized. In the old days a student from a home lacking in refinement went to college with his superiors, now he went with his peers. Consequently, the elevating power of a college education now lies wholly in the student himself; it is always the result of conscious effort. If a student has slight will power or small perception of differences, he will learn nothing outside of his books, for his associates have had no better advantages than himself. In the old days he was the passive recipient of the education due to constant contact with his superiors.

In her own college days, Agatha had more than once seen a student enter the freshman class with accent and manner that betrayed an uncultivated home. The majority—all, perhaps—of her classmates were her superiors, externally at all events. Her transformation was, with hardly an exception, miraculous. Then, the class groups photographed at entering and at graduating were object-lessons as to the value of a college education. In the year she lived at Westerley, Agatha saw no such miracle. The students developed, of course, but only as a man develops among his equals. It was always a development, never a transformation. As she had more experience of the various classrooms, Agatha wondered at this the less. There were no models. There was a little more or less scholastic attainment, but so few examples, comparatively speaking, of superiority in intonation, accent, or taste that these were lost in the wilderness of mediocrity. The classes were so large that the personality of the instructor had only an intellectual value. There was no chance for personal contact, for striking the human note. The university had come to be simply the culmination of the free public-school system, with all the unavoidable evils of a free public school.

Agatha had nephews and nieces with their education still before them. The family had looked on the State University as the natural place for them to go; but Agatha had not been six months in Westerley before she decided that, at any sacrifice, they must be sent elsewhere, and this with the conviction strong upon her that in no institution could they be offered better opportunities in the education that comes from books. Indeed, as she went in turn from one department to another, she was filled with wonder at the uniform excellence of the instruction, its breadth and depth, the personal importance of the majority of the instructors, the spirit, industry, and attainments of them all. She found nothing of dogmatism, nothing of conceit, no working in ruts. Instead, she found a readiness to acknowledge mistakes, an openness of mind towards opinions other than their own, a love of their work, and an invincible determination that each year should find them better fitted for it. They were as a whole a fine body of men, accurate, scholarly, progressive, creative, wise. It cost her a pang to think that the children should not come into contact with such men as she knew these to be.

But the contact with their fellow-students—that was quite another matter; not but that there were hundreds whose tone and manners were such that even the most anxious maiden aunt must approve; and Agatha had no fear that the children would go outside of these for their personal friends. They might not deteriorate in tone with the home influences back of them; but was it possible that they should improve? What an atmosphere in which, for instance, to combat the slanginess of the present generation! The children were even now convinced that Aunt Agatha was over-particular in objecting to many of their expressions; but where would her influence be in a community where at every turn were to be heard bits of conversation like the following: "Come to the Frat. this aft., Piggie?" "Can't. Got an ex. in Math. Prof. sat all over me yesterday, so I guess I'd better take a brace." This was the third year of these girls in the university.

Agatha was not narrow enough to condemn all slang. Some seemed to her piquant, picturesque, pleasing, and she used it herself occasionally with satisfaction. Some, however, was simply vulgar or pointless. It was to the misuse of slang that she objected, to the universality, to the lack of discrimination in the choice of it, to ignorance of where the boundaries of good English ended and those of slang began. If one sinned against the former, let it be done deliberately, in knowledge, not in ignorance. In her own college the use of slang had co-existed with a certain reverence for the language. There was, besides, a large element to be found there to which such expressions as "O, my!" and "Goodness gracious!" were not native; an element having a rudimentary sense of the vulgarity of abbreviations and nicknames. There was no such element in Westerley.

The realization of the sanctity of language and the duty of the individual towards preserving its purity does not come in the teens, and yet it is then and even earlier that habits of speech are formed, a discrepancy that makes the matter of association all-important. It was only of late years that Agatha had come to realize what she called, in the privacy of her mind, the sloppiness of her own speech. She had grown up in ignorance of the niceties of language, feeling vaguely that her own speech jarred upon her in some companionship, but without knowing why, until severe criticism of a little book she wrote awakened her to her own deficiencies. Being a parvenue, as it were, in speech, she took it seriously, and could not reconcile herself to the thought of those dear boys and girls growing up in the same obliviousness. And yet, if they came to the university, how could she give authority to her wishes with the vast amount of evidence to the contrary? The usual protest of, "It doesn't matter: every one says it," would seem to have truth on its side. But it was the tones of voice even more than the words uttered that distressed her. Was there to be no outward mark by which one could tell a university girl from a shop girl?

From this point her thoughts usually went on to the further question: Was it fair that the whole tone of the university should be lowered to meet a popular demand that was based on a delusion? Few individuals out of the hordes that the public schools were turning into the university had any real aptitude or desire for an education. They came for various reasons—many, because it was the alternative of going to work; most, because the education idea was in the air and they grasped at it without any discrimination as to its fitness for their need. No doubt a college education is of some value to every one, but it is of great value only to those who have the ability to overcome difficulties to get it. The thought came to Agatha that true justice would do away with the accrediting of the schools. It was not fair to the real students that they should be swamped with all this inert material, that the tone of the class room should be lowered and individual progress checked by the stupefying presence, the hampering participation, of incapacity. There are few instructors who, contrary to their natural inclinations, do not put their stupid pupils before their clever ones, adjusting the classroom work to the needs of the dullest of these. But if an examination were necessary for entering the university, would not this exclude the element that simply drifts in? Why should education be made so easy? Nothing else is that is worth while. So long as a university education is free, no

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boy or girl who really wants one, who has not merely been inoculated with the germ of the education idea, will be deprived of it. The course of study in the high schools that are now accredited is an adequate preparation for those who are mentally equal to university work, and those who get their preparation in irregular ways have, in any case, to pass an examination.

The buoyancy of a university may be great, but it cannot float more than a certain amount of dead weight and not sink itself. The students who work their way through college are, with few exceptions, absolutely dead weight, with the result, oftentimes, of spoiling a housemaid or a ploughboy. Agatha's indignation would once have been roused at any one who ventured to suggest that their presence could be other than a pride to any university. Her years in Westerley taught her to put aside her sympathy and sentiment and to accept the facts as they really were. Owing to the inelasticity of the twenty-four hours and the small value of unskilled labor, it is practically impossible that a student should support himself and do his college work in such a way as to be floating rather than sinking material. The rawness, ignorance, uncouthness of many of these students was inconceivable; and here in a free university they did harm by their mere presence, such as they would not have done at Harvard or Yale. Agatha had always held fast to the belief that no work is demeaning, but she found herself obliged to change it to "No work done for one's self or for others without pay is demeaning." The students who waited at restaurant tables or lived in people's kitchens as their hired men *were* lowered. No matter how strongly one wished to believe the contrary, one had to recognize the truth. A student who had spent his four or five years in stable and kitchen bore no mark of a university education. His course had done so little for him as a man, that it seemed a pity to have worked so hard for such inadequate results. Of course, when he came to the university for some technical training for a definite purpose, the case was different.

Even if she had been the arbitrator of human affairs, Agatha could never have brought herself to decree that the admitting of such students should be discouraged; nevertheless, she felt that the facts must be faced, and their detrimental effect recognized and, as far as possible, counteracted. The requiring of entrance examinations would, of course, do much beneficial weeding out. It is a great mistake to think that a college education is a good thing for every one who wants one or thinks he ought to want one. He must have reached a certain point intellectually before he can receive any great benefit. Here Amiel came into Agatha's mind again: "All teaching depends on a certain presentiment and preparation in the taught; we can teach others profitably only what they already virtually know; we can give them only what they had already."

Once the element that was wholly incapable, or wholly frivolous, was excluded, the scholastic tone of a free university might be the highest of all, for in it there would not be found the element that goes to college for the social prestige of it, or for the making of advantageous social connections. In the university thus purified Agatha found the great problem before her much easier to solve; for she did not accept the common belief that purity of intonation and speech can be learned *only* by association. It seemed to her that much more could be done in the classroom than was ever attempted, and she spent hours in devising courses in which actual training in everyday speaking could be given. She founded—in her imagination—a society to promote purity of speech and accent. The meetings of this club had a recognized value in units of college work. Every professor and instructor in the university became a member, and instruction in English speech became a part of every course. Or, on other occasions, Agatha put herself in the place of the President of the university, and in his person set forth on a search for the man who could grapple with this need. It would take a man of peculiar gifts, young, vigorous, enthusiastic, with magnetism and personal consequence. The time had come for a revival, a crusade. Only the most strenuous, most exhaustive means would avail, but, given the right man for a leader, they would avail. "An education in this university must be made to stand for culture"—these words should be written on the heart of every member of the faculty.

Another needed reform that forced itself upon Agatha's attention was a reduction in the number of hours' work that a student was allowed to take, at least in certain departments. It was impossible for a student in the College of Letters, for instance, to take sixteen or eighteen hours a week and do the work even tolerably well. Fourteen hours should be the limit. Besides the obviously evil results of any greater number, the effect on the students' mind and morals was bad. It encouraged unconscientiousness and slovenly, inaccurate work. The impossibility of doing the work required in any but a most superficial way influenced the students' habits of mind for life. Then, too, the nervous strain of going to class with a lesson half-prepared, in the dread of being called upon to recite, was infinitely harmful. The instructor should meet the student half-way and require only such work as could be done in a given space of time; but what he did require, on this he should insist to the utmost.

In Greek, for instance, Agatha had always felt that it was impossible for a student to give time enough to prepare a lesson really well. Her plan would be to specialize in each recitation; that is, she would announce at one the points that she would dwell upon at the next. For instance, at one recitation, the specialty should be a consideration of dialectic forms; at another, especial attention should be given to translation; at a third, the metre should be studied to the last doubtful quantity. In the specialty of the day she would require perfect work, and would supplement the necessarily superficial work on other points by explanations of her own. On some days, for instance, she would herself explain all the mythological, historical, and geographical allusions, realizing the large amount of time that this sort of research demands. There is no mental or moral injury in superficial work when, with a recognition of human and temporal limitations, it is avowedly superficial; it is superficial work masquerading as thorough that kills.

THE PRINCESS BELGIOJOSO.

PARIS, January 1, 1903.

Among the persons who were mixed up with the movement of the *Risorgimento*, Christina Trivulzio of Belgiojoso takes a secondary but not unimportant place. She has lately been made the subject of a curious work by M. Raffaello Barbiera, 'La Principessa Belgiojoso, i suoi amici e nemici, il suo tempo' (Milan: Treves). The Princess Belgiojoso appeared in Paris for a time like a sort of meteor, and she became acquainted with all the celebrities of the day. Her life reads like a novel—I may say, like the wildest of novels.

She was born in Milan June 28, 1808, the daughter of the Marquis Girolamo Trivulzio and of the Countess Gherardini. The Trivulzios are members of the greatest Milanese nobility, and have played a part in the history of Italy since the twelfth century. Among the curious monuments of Milan is the tomb of the Trivulzio who was made Marshal of France and conquered Northern Italy in the name of Louis XII. Under the statue of the warrior are these words:

"Qui nunquam quievit, quiescit."

They might have been written also on the tomb of Christina Belgiojoso. Her father threw himself into the liberal movement which followed the French occupation of Italy after the Revolution. He became a chamberlain of Eugène Beauharnais, the Viceroy of Italy. The young Christina was educated in an atmosphere hostile to the Austrian rule. She was married at the age of sixteen to the Prince Barbiano of Belgiojoso, who was twenty-four years old. The marriage was not happy, and in 1830 they separated amicably, without having recourse to judicial proceedings. The young Princess left for Switzerland. As her husband was a Carbonaro, she was under the eyes of the Austrian spies; she remembered that, by a decree of 1808, all the Trivulzios had the right of citizenship in Switzerland, and obtained an official declaration which made her a citizen of Ticino.

It was at that time that Mazzini founded a new sect, Young Italy, whose object was to free Italy from the Austrian yoke. Among the associates of this secret society were many members of the Italian aristocracy, especially in Northern Italy. Mazzini's enthusiasm inspired his followers with unbounded devotion. He was a gentleman, a writer of talent; he had much eloquence and a great power of organization. The Belgiojosos, husband and wife, entered into the society, which paved the way for *Italia una*. The Princess lived successively in Ticino and in France—at Antibes, Toulon, at Marseilles; in this last town she learned that the Austrian Government had sequestered all her property. She was ordered to return to Milan within three months, under pain of being declared civilly dead and of having all her property confiscated. Though her property was sequestered, she found the means of giving 400,000 francs towards the unfortunate plot directed against Carlo Alberto, whom Mazzini accused of betraying the Italian cause. Gallenga (who afterwards became a correspondent of the London *Times*) was to introduce himself in the palace at Turin and to assassinate the King. The plot was revealed; Gallenga and Mazzini were condemned to death *ad contumaciam*.

The Princess lived for some time in the

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island of Hyères during a trial for high treason, in which she was implicated along with her husband. She was in bad health, but refused 40,000 francs which her husband offered her, knowing that he was himself in debt, and left for Paris, the great "refugium peccatorum." When she arrived there, in 1833, Paris had become the principal centre of the Italian emigration, which included Rossi, who afterwards became French Ambassador to Rome and Minister of Pio Nono, and who was assassinated in Rome on the 15th of November, 1848, Nicolò Tommaseo, Gioberti, Count Mamiani, Sirtori, Amari, Gen. Pepe, and Count Charles Pepoli:

"The Princess," says M. Barbiera, "arrived in Paris without any noise, and took lodgings in one of the most outlying quarters, in the upper story of a house inhabited by poor people. She painted fans as a means of revenue, saying that she had nothing to live on, as the Austrian Government had sequestered all her property. I don't know if it be true that she put on her door a card with these words: 'The unhappy Princess.' Perhaps the unhappy Princess exaggerated her poverty in order to make the Austrian Government more odious. What is certain is, that she was not living in affluence.

"A young man, of short stature, but of great talent, as soon as he saw the very handsome Italian Princess, was seized with a violent passion. He was the man who some time afterwards was to direct the affairs of France. Adolphe Thiers frequented much the house of the Princess. He used to go into the kitchen and cook the eggs for breakfast when he was invited. The breakfast, to be sure, consisted only of eggs, butter, and plain water, which the Princess poured majestically into glasses adorned with various paintings which she had made herself. But the napkin was of the finest Flanders linen, and the brown head of the goddess of the place shone marvellously, surrounded as it was by a rich mantle, which imitated an Oriental turban, and the folds of which fell over her shoulders."

There is no doubt that Thiers felt much admiration and affection for the handsome and gifted Princess; she never felt anything but friendship for him, and took advantage of his sentiments in order to convert him into a supporter of the aspirations and the claims of Italy. Thiers made at that time several speeches in favor of his friend's country. The Princess herself spoke of Italy, and wherever she went she found supporters in all ranks of society. Madame George Sand was one of her admirers. She visited the salon of old Gen. Lafayette:

"The General," says M. Barbiera, "used to sit by the fireplace in his salon, which was furnished with great simplicity. He was an old man, very tall, thin, pale, wearing a brown wig. An eminent Italian was often at his side, Gen. Pepe, who had served in the army of Murat and fought the Austrians at Rieti in 1821. . . . There were few ladies in this salon, which was properly a circle of men; among them was the Princess Belgiojoso, near whom sat a Quakeress, Mrs. Opie, whose curious dress made a contrast."

In 1834 the Princess would have a salon of her own. She took a hôtel between court and garden in the Rue d'Anjou, not far from the house of Lafayette. She was now receiving large sums from Milan, and furnished her hôtel at great expense. "Her large salon had its walls covered with a brown, almost black, velvet, sprinkled with silver stars. It had the aspect of a *chapelle ardente*." The other rooms were covered with white silk; all the ornaments, clocks, candelabras, were of silver. She was fond of contrasts, and liked to astonish people. In her study were seen enormous folios, the works of the Fathers of the Church. She really read them. She had a *prie-Dieu* with a death's-head at its foot. The result of her studies was an 'Essay on the Formation of the Catholic Dogma,' a purely orthodox work, in four volumes, which is not, it seems, without some merit. She did not put her name to it; but her secret was soon discovered, and her friends wondered how she could make her orthodoxy accord with her revolutionary doctrines, and how she found so much time for working, leading, as she did, the most worldly life. She wrote afterwards an 'Essay on Vico,' and 'New Science,' a translation of the Neapolitan philosopher's 'Scienza Nuova.'

Among her new friends were the pious Ozanam, Sirtori, a priest of Milan, who had left the church (he became afterwards a Garibaldian officer and a general in the Italian army), Cousin the philosopher, the poet Heine. She appeared before them in the dress of the "Grey Sisters," which she did not abandon even when she went to the Italian Theatre, as she only took off her bonnet and put some flowers in her beautiful black hair. Musset was one of her visitors for a time, but they soon quarrelled and he wrote on her these cruel verses:

"Elle est morte, et n'a point vécu;
Elle faisait semblant de vivre.
De ses mains est tombé le livre
Dans lequel elle n'a rien lu."

M. Mignet, the historian, the great friend of Thiers, became one of her favorites, along with the historian Augustin Thierry, who afterward became blind, and to whom she showed the greatest devotion in his misfortune; Thierry was her guest for twelve years, and lived in her hôtel, receiving every attention. The Princess was as generous as she was eccentric.

She lived in a perfect whirlwind in Paris: the number of her admirers was legion—Chopin, Liszt, Thalberg, Döhler, Mario and the Grisis, Meyerbeer, Delacroix, Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas, Balzac, etc. A reconciliation took place between Princess Belgiojoso and her husband, who for a time lived on the ground floor of her hôtel; but it did not last long. One morning, the Duchess of Piacenza ran away from Paris with the Prince. They went to Italy, where they remained for eight years in a villa on Lake Como. In 1845 the Princess founded a newspaper, the *Gazzetta Italiana*, in defence of the Italian cause. She was allowed to live in Milan, and afterwards on one of her estates, where she was absorbed for a time in agricultural pursuits. At the time of the Revolution of 1848 she was in Naples. She formed a battalion of Neapolitan volunteers, whom she herself conducted to Milan. Her "giovanetti napolitani" joined the Piedmontese army, but never saw the enemy. She was herself not satisfied with the Piedmontese Government and revisited Paris, but returned to Italy when the Republic was proclaimed in Rome, renewed there her acquaintance with Mazzini, and conducted an active propaganda for him and the short-lived Roman Republic. After the capitulation of Rome she led a wandering existence in the Holy Land, in Asiatic Turkey. She bought land in Anatolia, and led a purely Oriental life, often under the tent. She tired of this after a while, and returned to Turin, where she founded a paper, *L'Italia* (still in existence in Rome), and wrote many interesting articles for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the East and "Italian Unity." She retired, in the end, to Blevio, on Lake Como, and ended her agitated life, almost forgotten, on the 5th of July, 1871.

Correspondence.

THE INDIANOLA POST-OFFICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with infinite regret your brief editorial in your last issue approving the President's conduct in closing the post-office at Indianola, Miss. Has it occurred to you that the closing of this post-office, without warrant in law, or, as we think, in reason, will be regarded by the mass of our people as partaking of "Lynch Law" itself, and will lend plausible excuse to those disposed to commit such crimes and ruin the moral influence which our best people exert against lynching?

The action itself is condemned by all our best people, both Democrats and Republicans. The President is punishing not only the white people of Indianola, but eight millions and more of black people as well, by lessening the spirit of kindness and good-will on the part of some twenty millions of white people towards them.

God knows the mass of the negroes need all the charity and kindness of their white neighbors, and he is no friend of theirs who lessens such feelings towards them. Such punishment is cruel and unusual, contrary alike to the spirit and the letter of our national Constitution. The President has acted most unwisely, and has made the judicious among us to grieve.

Are you yourself acting wisely in supporting him?—Respectfully,

EDWIN LEHMAN JOHNSON.

MEMPHIS, TENN., January 16, 1903.

[The Postmaster-General's authority to discontinue post-offices cannot be questioned. Section 3864 of the Revised Statutes fits the case under consideration exactly. When the white "spirit of kindness and good-will" asserts itself at Indianola by stamping out white ruffianism, no doubt the post-office will be reopened. Meanwhile, the example will serve as a deterrent in other localities.—ED. NATION.]

ONE COMPLEXION FOR ALL "REBELS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An officer, writing home to his family from the seat of war, speaks thus of the enemy:

"The people are extremely violent and wrong-headed. Like all other cowards, they are cruel and tyrannical. To hear them talk you would imagine that they would attack us and demolish us every night, and yet, when we appear, they are frightened out of their wits. . . . This is the most beautiful country I ever saw in my life, and if the people were only like it we should do very well. The people here are a set of sly, artful, hypocritical rascals, cruel, and cowards. They have not the least idea of either religion or morality. Nor have they the

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least scruples of taking the most solemn oath on any matter that can assist their purpose; the rebels scalped and cut off the ears of the wounded men who fell into their hands."

This sounds very much as if written by an American officer about the Filipinos. But it was not. It was written by Hugh, Earl Percy, a British general engaged in fighting the Yankee "Filipinos" in 1775. More in the same strain can be read in the Percy Letters just published by a Boston house.

We know that Earl Percy was much mistaken in his judgment of us. May we not also suspect the sweeping statements so often made as to the cruelty, treachery, etc., of our foes? D.

CHICAGO, January 17, 1903.

WHITTIER NEWSPAPERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask, through the columns of the *Nation*, whether any one can tell me where I may find files of the *Middlesex Standard* (Lowell, Mass.) for 1844-'45, and of the *Essex Transcript* (Amesbury, Mass.) for 1845-'46? During parts of the years mentioned, J. G. Whittier was the editor of these papers.—Very truly yours,

G. R. CARPENTER.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, January 16, 1903.

Notes.

Besides the special, luxurious edition of Little, Brown & Co.'s forthcoming "National Edition" of Daniel Webster's speeches and letters, limited to fifty sets, we should have mentioned the regular subscription edition of 1,000 sets in buckram at one-tenth the price of the former. New portraits of Webster, with portraits of all the Presidents and of eminent statesmen contemporary with him, form a part of the profuse illustrations in both series.

The Carnegie Institution has deemed it useful to reëstablish the *Index Medicus*, a monthly classified record of the current medical literature of the world, originally founded by Drs. John S. Billings and Robert Fletcher in 1879, and discontinued twenty years later. The second series commences with January 1, 1903, and will have for editors Dr. Fletcher and Dr. Fielding H. Garrison. Subscriptions should be addressed to the Carnegie Institution at Washington.

The American edition of the quarterly *Book of Bookplates*, edited by Stewart Dick, will hereafter be issued by the A. Wessels Company.

Forthcoming publications by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'The Life and Times of Georg Joachim Goschen, Publisher and Printer of Leipzig,' by Viscount Goschen, freely illustrated; 'St. Augustine and his Age,' by Joseph McCabe; 'The Egregious English,' by Angus McNeill; and 'The Art of Speaking,' by Ernest Pertwee.

Trial sheets of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s edition of Florio's Montaigne in three volumes, folio, show that it will be one of the most beautiful products of the American press. The style of lettering and typographical ornament is, appropriately, that of the sixteenth century in France, but there is no slavish imitation of the methods of Vérard and Tory. The editor, Mr. George B. Ives, has collated carefully the three original editions of Florio, and has annotated the text with a view to explaining difficult passages, correcting mistranslations, and identifying Montaigne's frequent allusions and quotations. In this latter task he has necessarily depended upon the various French commentators, but the notes at hand give evidence of a scholarly and independent spirit. It may safely be said that this stately work will be not only remarkable typographically, but an advance in respect of scholarship upon any previous English edition of Montaigne.

John Lane invites subscriptions to 'The Ancient Halls of the City Guilds,' drawn in lithography by Thomas R. Way, with some account of the history of the companies, by Philip Norman.

'Down the Orinoco,' by Señor Perez Triana, is in the press of Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will soon issue 'The Untilled Field,' by George Moore; 'Spinners of Life,' by Vance Thompson; and 'A Tar-Heel Baron,' by Mrs. M. S. Clarke Pelton.

Mrs. Isaac R. Davis, No. 2015 Spruce Street, Philadelphia, contemplates publishing through J. B. Lippincott Co. a quarto volume, 'The Warren, Jackson and Allied Families,' being the ancestry of Jesse Warren and Betsey Jackson.

The season that witnesses a revival of Miss Pardoe's writings fitly brings Grace Aguilar again to the front, if, indeed, she has ever quite "gone out of print." Both these authors, it is instructive to note, owe their endurance in great measure to their excellent style. Dent in London, and the Jewish Publication Society of America in Philadelphia, have just issued 'The Tale of Cedars, and Other Tales,' by Miss Aguilar—the latter drawn from her 'Home Scenes and Heart Studies' of just half a century ago. Walter Jerrold furnishes a biographical sketch containing little not to be found in the Dictionary of National Biography, and there are some illustrations.

Good English can also be predicated of Miss Cummins's novel, 'The Lamplighter,' another half-century success, "in constant demand" since it appeared in 1854 and followed in the wake of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' as a "record-breaker" in sales and editions. Miss Cummins, as her present publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., inform us, was a pupil of Mrs. Sedgwick in Lenox, but she was also the daughter of a judge, and was naturally endowed with a capacity for literary expression. Her first book is worth reading by any student of changes in the public taste in fiction. It is now presented in unmutilated form.

Thackeray's daughter supplies a tripartite preface to Macmillan's new edition of the perennial classic, 'A Week in a French Country House,' of Adelaide Sartoris, with a photographic portrait, and two illustrations by Lord Leighton. Mrs. Ritchie suggests rather than portrays the charm of the musical sister of Fanny Kemble by fragmentary extracts from letters of personal friends. "One thing," writes one such, "that always rings in my ears"—the phrase is not happily chosen—"is her recitation of Shelley's 'Good Night' to a low obligato accompaniment on the piano." We read also of two of her treasured possessions, "a beautiful old black German Bible, on the first page of which is inscribed, 'F. Liszt to Adelaide Kemble,'" and "a green morocco book beautifully bound, the name written in it by the giver, Edward FitzGerald," which "contained Tennyson's 'Morte d'Arthur' copied out in familiar handwriting." "Mrs. Kemble," FitzGerald's full-moon correspondent, "has told me how," adds Mrs. Ritchie, "as a young man, Mr. FitzGerald deeply loved and admired her sister."

India paper is to be thanked for the reprint of Pepys's immortal Diary in one pocketable volume which Mr. Newnes and the Scribners offer conjointly. If Lord Braybrooke's edition, and not the later and fuller versions, has supplied the text, there is still all that the average Pepysian will require. An imaginary portrait of the diarist, by E. J. Sullivan, is the frontispiece and sole illustration. The impression, in spite of the marvellous compactness of the tall booklet, is large, and clear enough to be read by him who runs or walks. For the latter service this reprint is eminently convenient. There is a two-column index of 66 pages.

To the "Caxton Series" of the same publishers is added a two-volume reprint of Herrick's 'Hesperides and Noble Numbers,' illustrated after pen drawings by R. Savage, and bound in the familiar bright blue flexible leather, gold stamped.

While on the subject of little books, Mr. Henry Frowde's 'Select Passages from Jowett' ('Plato's Introductions' and 'Theological Writings') should not be forgotten. These convenient little volumes contain respectively a portrait of the Master of Balliol at seventy-six and at fifty-four, and are edited by Lewis Campbell. Both are calculated to attract attention to the robust intellect of Jowett, and to do good.

The pretty "Muses Library" (London: Bullen; New York: Scribners) is continued by 'The Poetry of George Wither,' in two volumes, edited by Frank Sidgwick. Of this voluminous writer only the poems, including those in the edition of 1622, are chosen; his later religious writings, which the curious will find in the Spenser Society's reprints, are neglected. Wither could have been popularized on no other terms. The present edition contains portraits, facsimiles, an elaborate introduction, and bibliographies—all in keeping with the scholarly tradition of the series.

Ginn & Co. do a valuable service in printing Charles Sumner's 'Addresses on War' in an inexpensive volume. Neither the eloquence nor the cogency of the three orations—"The True Grandeur of Nations," "The War System of the Commonwealth of Nations," and "The Duel between France and Germany"—has faded with the lapse of time. Indeed, recent events only emphasize the value of this classic refutation of the arguments for militarism.

We close our present enumeration of reprints with mention of 'The Poetical Works of John Keats,' in a single volume (Macmillan). A straightforward biography in brief, with some appreciation of the poems, is supplied by Walter S. Scott, and there is a portrait. The use made of Keats's letters in the introduction may prompt the reader to turn to them in Mr. Forman's edition; but on every occasion there should be an explicit injunction to make a first approach to Keats by way of

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these documents, which share the remarkable precocity of his verse.

The Rev. Daniel M. Wilson's 'Where American Independence Began'—*scilicet*, Quincy, Mass.—(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is little more than a working over of the memorial volume which he edited a dozen years ago on the occasion of the 250th anniversary of the First Church in that town, of which he was for fourteen years pastor. He has swollen it with pictures, one of them a portrait of very questionable authenticity, and with other matter which have been before the public again and again, and the last pages are a sort of cross between a business directory and a "blue book," with more than one misspelling. Externally, the book is attractive.

Oxford University prescribes the first book of Appian's 'Civil Wars of the Romans' in the Greek text for students in the School of Literæ Humaniores. The selection is made because it embraces a period, between Polybius and Cicero, not covered by any other ancient writer, except in a fragmentary way by Plutarch. Mr. Strachan-Davidson, fellow of Balliol College, has brought out this book with notes and index, and an appendix on the Passage of the Alps by Pompey and Hannibal, the whole embracing 150 pages. The like service rendered by the same editor in his 'Selections from Polybius' is sufficient guarantee of the carefulness of his work on the text of Appian (H. Frowde).

Curtis & Cameron, Boston, publish 'The Quest of the Holy Grail,' the text being paraphrased from the old legends to fit the plates, which are from Mr. Abbey's well-known paintings in the Boston Public Library. Wherever possible, Dr. Greenslet has "followed Malory's diction," and has done his work well enough. The plates from the paintings are too small in scale to be effective, and are unequal in execution, but they are supplemented by eleven reproductions from the original chalk studies which are more satisfactory, though they show a curious effect of red and green striping which is not pleasant. The book is handsomely printed and bound in buckram.

The published volumes of Addresses and Proceedings of the National Educational Association tend to become unwieldy and more or less chaotic. The recently distributed volume, covering the last annual meeting, held at Minneapolis in July, comprises more than 1,000 pages, while the table of contents requires a little over 200 separate entries. It is a rare reader who has interest in more than a fraction of this mass of material; and of those who are interested in it all, few, if any, could find time to read the half of it. It is a pity, then, that really good papers should be buried away so effectually from those who ought to read them. Here is a paper by J. Irving Manatt, for instance, on the "Future of Greek Studies," which is one of the most trenchant, witty, and effective presentations of the subject in brief ever made by an American teacher. There are other good papers on such subjects as "Education in the Appreciation of Art," "The Psychological and Ethical Value of Music," "Hindrance to the Development of Language," etc.; but happy is the reader who will find them in this much and miscellaneously overladen volume. If the National Educational Association is to cover so much and so varied ground in its meetings, we suggest the publication of its papers and proceedings in two or three small volumes, so classified as to consult the convenience of certain general types of possible readers. Papers on language, literature, history, art, and music, for instance, might well go together; mathematics and the natural sciences could form a second volume, and pedagogical discussions a third. The Secretary's minutes should go into a small pamphlet, entirely apart from other material. All this directly in the interests of the cause for which the Association exists.

A granddaughter of Mrs. Sarah Josepha Hale is vindicating through the press that lady's authorship of the familiar poem, "Mary had a little lamb." There was, she says, no Mary and no lamb except in her grandmother's imagination. The poem was composed "at the request of Lowell Mason of Boston, where Mrs. Hale was living, in 1830. Dr. Mason was very desirous of introducing music into the public schools of Boston," as he afterwards did.

—The 'Valley Forge Orderly Book of General George Weedon' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a valuable record of one phase of the life of the Continental army in 1777-78. The operations intended to save Philadelphia from capture by the British, the defeat of Washington's plans at a time when the surrender of Burgoyne placed Gates in a position to be used by men more scheming than himself, and the terrible winter at Valley Forge, make a sequence of events of the highest interest. The value of this record lies in its picture of the daily routine of army life, the punishments meted out by courts-martial, the details of the troops, the parole and countersign, and the machinery of marching orders. It is not new, for every army lived in much the same way; yet it is novel in the light thrown upon the events of the years covered by the record. Discipline was maintained at great cost to the wrongdoer, the punishment ranging from a reprimand to death. Plundering was denounced in the strongest terms, and the frequency of mention points to the difficulty of restraining the men. The hopes and fears of Washington are expressed in the orders, either in a stirring appeal to the patriotism of the troops, or a frank admission of failure coupled with soothing phrases intended to take off the sting of defeat. The praise of the victor of Saratoga, the mishap at Germantown, where the Americans "fled from victory," and the dark days in winter encampment, called forth sentences of high eloquence, almost Napoleonic in form and manner of expression.

—The orderly book is printed just as it was written by the adjutant of Weedon's Corps. That is as it should be, but it may be questioned whether that is enough. The general orders of the army are given so far as the orderly used them, and the orders of the brigade, issued by Greene, as well as the division orders, are added. This makes the record the more interesting, but is apt to mislead those who do not know that it is a record of a particular division in a particular brigade of the Continental army. Either through carelessness or intentional omission the orders are incomplete in what should be the principal feature, the orders applying to the whole army. For example, Greene's command marched early on August 22, and lost the orders issued on the afternoon of the 21st, directing the march of the regiments of horse. On the next day, Washington approved twelve sentences imposed by a general court-martial, but only seven of these are recorded in Weedon's book. The movements of the brigade on a march prevented the proper entries in the orderly book, and thus it happens that omissions are frequent. There are printed no general orders for August 24 and 25, though on the latter day was issued notice of the trial and acquittal of "Capt." Henry Lee on a charge of disobeying orders. The words of parole and countersign are often omitted, and "after orders" are not given in the first months of the record. Errors in date are found, as when the orders of August 27th are entered as those of August 28th. The omitted words could easily have been obtained from another record, as on p. 22, where *thing* is the missing word. Names are carelessly printed, though the plea could be made that the original phonetic method was at fault. But when the same name is incorrectly indexed (as Durgie for Durkee), the editor erred. As a whole, the book stands by itself, and it is to be hoped that at some future time the national Government will print the entire general orders of the Continental army.

—In spite of the fact that no one who visits the west of Ireland can resist writing about it, Connemara has been very little affected and still less enriched by the tourist. The inns, with perhaps three exceptions, are very poor, and the district seems likely to remain a centre of sport for such as can afford to rent one of the shooting and fishing lodges that relieve the loneliness of the deep bays and lakes. Mr. S. G. Bayne, in his brief Irish tour from Londonderry to Cork by way of Donegal, Sligo, and Limerick ('On an Irish Jaunting Car through Donegal and Connemara: Harper & Bros.), traversed some of the most interesting and least-visited country in Ireland. The full-page photographs which he collected *en route* are the most attractive feature of the book, which has no pretension to style. It is, in fact, merely a series of notes on car-drives, hotels, and famous points of scenery, written in a genial spirit as a record of a successful holiday. We can imagine no short European trip half so likely to restore a business man as this of Mr. Bayne's, who spent his month's vacation among some of the most beautiful mountain and lake scenery in the world, far from the tourist throng, and in the mild, soothing air that ensures appetite and sleep. It is to be hoped that his experiences will inspire many, but not too many, others to avoid railways and towns, and drive at their ease in an Irish side-car in that lonely country that lies on the extreme western verge of Europe. The western counties of Ireland have all the beauties of Wales in a higher degree; one is rarely out of sight of great stretches of water, fresh and salt, and the sound of it is always in one's ears. The great advantage of these districts over Wales is the absence of crowds—a state of things likely to continue in the present happy scarcity of railways. Mr. Bayne's book is well got up.

—One more book intended to serve as a

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guide to what is left of old Paris comes from the house of Hachette, under the title 'Guide Pratique à travers le Vieux Paris,' by the Marquis de Rochegude. It is a small pocket volume of 230 pages, and professes to deal only with the ancient and the curious houses, especially those which can be seen by visitors; and indirectly with the streets, squares, and quays on which these houses open. In thirty-three different routes (*itinéraires*) the inquiring student of Paris is carried from corner to corner—and for a certain distance up adjoining streets—from house to house, with pauses at the old *portes-cochères*, with mention of what few memorial tablets are built into the walls, and some historical fact about many and many a house not so distinguished. Occasionally one is disappointed that an old legend is discredited by this careful investigator, or receives no notice at all, for some legends are of very modern construction, and others will escape the student's notice; but most often a brief sentence or a briefer clause gives all that need be given to set the inquirer on the right path. Thus, one is pleased (page 126) with the beginning of the Thirteenth Route and the first house mentioned in the Rue St. Honoré, which was, it appears, that occupied by Gabrielle d'Estrées in 1594, and that in which Jean Châtel tried to murder Henry IV.; but again one is a little disappointed when he reaches the point of the Island where the Pont Neuf crosses it, and there rise before his mental vision the two old houses which front westward down the river, to find no mention of the legend which another antiquarian has preserved:

"Illec feut Jean Chastel conduict
Pour estre occiz place de Grève."

The old houses are named—No 13 on the north side, which carried once the sign of St. Jerome; No. 15 on the south side, which was at the sign of the Golden Cup or Vase (*Coupe d'or*); and it is stated that between these houses Tabarin set up his portable platforms and acted his farces—farces decried by Boileau, but spoken of with complacency by La Fontaine. The author of the book before us does not allow himself to take these "barndoor-fowl flights of learning," as Dr. Holmes would have called them; he goes straight on with his task, and tells us of the different buildings with but the briefest allusion to their history and traditions. But this is what one wants in the case of a little index-like book.

—Professor Beljame of the University of Paris has followed up his masterly translations of "Macbeth" (1897) and "Julius Cæsar" (1900) with a version of "Othello" (Paris: Hachette), equally faithful and illuminating. Previous French translators and adapters of Shakspere, from Letourneur (1776) on, have sacrificed fidelity to predilection, and either made him frigidly "classic," transmuting his varied speech into that *style noble* in which "horse" is always *coursier* and "man" *guerrier*, or else made him extravagantly "romantic," overloading his pages with violent epithets and introducing wilful distortions of his sense. Instead of reproducing Shakspere's meaning as they found it, they have given what in their judgment he ought to have written. In the new translation Shakspere comes into his own. Professor Beljame furnishes a critical text, preserving as far as possible the readings of the first folio, but with modernized spelling. The stresses of the verse are marked according to Ellis's system. Facing this is the French version, line for line, in prose. The fidelity of spirit and the scholarly accuracy of the translation call for high praise. While closely literal, it is not a dictionary translation, but one in which idiom is matched by idiom, and in which the speakers preserve individuality of diction. Even the puns of the original meet us in amusing French equivalents, as where "Thereby hangs a tale," becomes "Il y a une queue à l'histoire." Professor Beljame's version can be recommended not only to the student of Shakspere, who will find that it throws constant light upon the difficulties of the English text, but also to the student of French, to whom it offers an admirable opportunity of comparing the usages of the two languages.

—At a convention of the Modern Language Association of America, held at Harvard some years ago, Dr. Daniel K. Dodge, in a paper entitled "Scandinavian Lexicography," pointed out an Etymological Dictionary as the most crying need for Danish linguistics, while an opposing speaker maintained that the chief desideratum was a thesaurus of the Danish language, something like a Danish Webster or Century Dictionary. The former of these needs was partly, but very imperfectly, filled by E. Jessen's 'Danish Etymological Dictionary,' published at the expense of the Carlsberg fund. The author, who in his youth was one of the most promising Danish philologists, a leader in modern philologic thought, keen as a razor, had turned a complete somersault in his linguistic theories and practices, had for a long time given up his interest in philologic research, and now set to work to combat the very linguistic tendencies of which he was formerly a partisan. He, therefore, so to say, wilfully made his work antiquated, and it is not very valuable to the public or to the student. A more ambitious work is now in course of publication by H. Aschehoug & Co., of Christiania, under the title of 'Etymological Dictionary of the Norwegian and Danish Language.' The authors, Hjalmar Falk and Alf Torp, both of whom are professors in the University of Christiania, have for several years been known to philologic science as collaborators, having previously published jointly two works relating to the phonetic and syntactical history of the Dano-Norwegian language. Their intention is, in the present work, to give a scientific explanation of the origin and history of every word, not only in the Norwegian literary language, but also in the pure Danish and in the Norwegian *landsmaal*, and also to explain the origin and meaning of the many idiomatic expressions and popular sayings in which this language, like most others, abounds. Of this dictionary three parts have so far appeared, carrying the work to about the middle of the letter H. It gives every promise of being of great interest to any student of the Scandinavian languages, although it would seem that the authors occasionally take in too much of the etymological material obtained from the more distant branches of the Indo-European family of languages, and are too prone to find an historic connection between German (Low and High) and Danish or Norwegian peculiarities. A Danish or a Dano-Norwegian "Webster" or "Standard" Dictionary still remains to be wished for.

WIENER'S RUSSIAN ANTHOLOGY.

Anthology of Russian Literature from the Earliest Period to the Present Time. By Leo Wiener, Assistant Professor of Slavic Languages at Harvard University. In two parts. Part I.—From the Tenth Century to the Close of the Eighteenth Century. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. xvii, 447.

For many years, both in England and in America, there has been a genuine popular interest in Russia and its literature, if one may judge by the ready sale of books of travel in Russia, and of translations—often bad ones—of Russian novels. But for information on Russian literature the public has had to depend largely upon scattered essays, often by men insufficiently acquainted either with the Russian language or with literary criticism. Waliszewski's 'History of Russian Literature,' the best general account of the subject accessible in English, has much suggestive discussion of the great modern writers, but is very weak in its treatment of the earlier periods, and its inaccuracy has been increased by an incompetent translator. This "definite want" Professor Wiener of Harvard University has undertaken to supply in his 'Anthology.' Probably no writer of English is so well equipped for the task. His first volume concludes with the close of the pseudo-classic school at the end of the eighteenth century. A second volume will treat the modern or "national" literature.

The plan of the work is excellent. A 'Sketch of Russian Literature' opens the volume. Though this at first seems obscure, from its almost stenographic form and the host of strange names that fill its pages, it proves to be well adapted to its immediate purpose, for in the body of the book we find a selection from nearly every one of these unknown authors and a short account of his life and his position in literary history. In these selections, which are in part here translated for the first time, in part chosen from previous English versions, lies the great value of this 'Anthology.' Professor Wiener has not written a volume of pleasant essays, but has given us a work to some extent authoritative. A diligent student of this book would probably learn more of the earlier Russian literature than he could from all other English accounts put together.

Of course the 'Anthology' is in no sense a work of original research, but a frank compilation. The selections are often translated from Russian chrestomathies, notably from that of Busláev, a text-book used in the Russian schools. These native sources are, very sensibly, not specifically acknowledged; the mention of names would be useless to the English reader and almost superfluous to the student of Russian. On the other hand, abundant references are given to the preceding English literature on the subject. By this modesty of aim, Professor Wiener has secured a unity and proportion for his work that it would have been harder to attain in a more ambitious attempt. His selections illustrate and support one another. Thus, the old epic fragment, 'The Word of Igor's Armament' is explained by an extract from the 'Kiev Chronicle' narrating the same event. Everywhere the effort is to give English readers somewhat the same commonplace, connected, useful notion of the older Russian writers that Rus-

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sian boys and girls receive in the gymnasium. Finally, the logical transliteration of Russian names ranks not least among the merits of this 'Anthology.'

Thus, the general plan of the book merits nothing but praise. Before speaking of the execution, we must note that English is not Professor Wiener's native language. In spite of this, his style is in general clear and idiomatic. We will note, however, occasional infelicities of diction which might well be corrected in a second edition. Witness the mixture of metaphors in the following:

"We shall now make the balance-sheet of the eighteenth-century literature in the separate departments, and see what residuum it bequeathed to the nineteenth century" (p. 33).

In the following there is a peculiar incongruity:

"I picked up a psalter in my sorrow, opened it, and these words were before me: 'Why are you sad, my soul? Why are you grieved?'" (p. 51).

Here the English reader longs for the familiar phrases of the Authorized Version. Occasional mistakes are to the discredit of the proof-reader. Thus, we read of "a drunk man" and "a drunk woman" (p. 129).

In his Preface, Professor Wiener writes:

"In my own translations . . . I have attempted to render minutely the originals, with their different styles, not excepting their very imperfections, such as characterize particularly the writers of the eighteenth century. Only when the diction is inexpressibly crude, as in Pososhkóv's writings, or the text corrupt, as in the 'Word of Igor's Armament,' have I made slight deviations for the sake of clearness" (p. vi).

This effort at extreme literalness seems to have been unfortunate in the very title here mentioned. "The Tale of Igor's Raid" would, we think, be far better. Apparently, the English "word," unlike its Russian equivalent, has never been used in the sense of 'tale' or 'story.' And, striving to render the ambiguous Russian *polk* ('expedition' or 'band'), the translator selects "armament," thereby producing a bookish title quite at variance with the tone of the old heroic tale.

In other cases, Professor Wiener seems not to have adhered to his plan of literal translation, sometimes even to have fallen into positive errors. We have compared with the originals only a small portion of the 'Anthology,' and that mainly from the older, more difficult texts. Now Russian mediæval documents are in one respect much like their Western contemporaries. The general sense of their naïve, incoherent narrative can be made out at a glance, but a strictly accurate version requires time and painstaking attention. Over some passages Professor Wiener seems to have passed too lightly. Thus, we read: "Then Prince Igor stepped into the golden stirrup and galloped over the clear field. The sun barred his way in darkness; night groaning with the cries of birds awoke him" (p. 83, 'Word of Igor's Armament'). If Igor were galloping on horseback, he would scarcely need awakening! In this passage the text is apparently not corrupt and the sense seems clear: "Then Prince Igor stepped into the golden stirrup and rode over the clear field. The sun barred his way with darkness; night, groaning threateningly at him, awoke the birds." In the same 'Word of Igor's Armament,' by the way, on page 94, figures a certain Ovlúr, whose relation to the story is not explained. A short footnote would have served to point out his probable identity with the Lavór of the 'Kiev Chronicle' (p. 78). The 'Story of Misery Luckless-Plight' appears in the 'Anthology' as a prose tale, with no hint that the original is in a rude form of verse, imitated from the popular ballads. It is also omitted from mention in the index to the volume.

Professor Wiener's critical views owe much, he tells us (p. vi.), to the Russian critic Pýpin, whose great 'History of Russian Literature' is the most recent general work on the subject. For the most part, Professor Wiener's criticisms are guarded, and of a general character, but here, also, occasional doubtful statements may be noted. No document of early Russian literature is so interesting as the oft-mentioned 'Word of Igor's Armament,' an epic fragment dating apparently from the twelfth century. No document is so problematic in its literary character and relations. By making the first complete English translation of it, Professor Wiener has rendered a great service; but he is surely wrong in writing: "The *Nibelungenlied* and the *Chanson de Roland* are chiefly productions of a literary character, while the *Word* bears every evidence of representing the untutored labor of a popular bard" (p. 80). Here he goes much further than Pýpin, who says merely (in our abridgment):

"As the work of a personal author, the *Word* is a remarkable proof of the degree of literary cultivation reached by the twelfth century. In it coöperated elements of folklore, of personal temperament, and of old traditions. It may be compared to the *Nibelungenlied* and the *Chanson de Roland*, but did not undergo literary remodelling to the same extent, and has preserved surprising and, historically, extremely curious traits of popular poetry and popular manners."

Furthermore, the 'Word,' in its present form, is written in a sort of poetic prose, reminding us of Ossian. Professor Wiener refers to it constantly as a "poem," and to its author as a "bard"; only once (p. 9) does he use the term "prose poem." But at least one prominent Russian scholar held that the 'Word' was never written in verse at all, and that its frequent references to pagan divinities, instead of being direct echoes of popular superstition, are ornaments of a pseudo-classic character.

As a whole, this 'Anthology' will hardly make Russian literature more popular. In particular, few readers will be attracted to the eighteenth-century poets. Even in Russia most of these men are as little read as Glover in England or Trumbull in America. Professor Wiener's treatment of the folklore is good, but here he has had competent predecessors. The earlier pages of the volume, with their versions of quaint mediæval pieces, hitherto wholly inaccessible, are the most valuable; but even these translations will appeal to a very limited public. The 'Anthology' will be most useful to those who already know something of the great modern novelists, and who wish to extend their knowledge to the earlier literature. To them it will be indispensable. It should stand on the reference shelves of every public library. It appears auspiciously by the side of new and at last, let us be thankful, competent versions of Turgeneff and Tolstoy. We may hope, then, that in our new century the knowledge of Russian literature accessible to English readers will be knowledge worth having.

HALE'S MEMORIES.

Memories of a Hundred Years. By Edward Everett Hale. Two vols. The Macmillan Co.

In the course of these wayward and intricate meanderings Dr. Hale mentions a well-known French physicist — so well known that he is not named—who remembered seeing the nurse raise the curtain of his room when he was six hours old. But Dr. Hale's own memory goes farther back. It is only through excess of modesty that he calls his book 'Memories of a Hundred Years.' A century does not exhaust their scope. His explanation of his title is that he remembers people who remembered the beginnings of the nineteenth century. He remembers some whose memories go back a good deal farther, and he remembers books that take him back another stretch of quite indefinite extent. Here is a device the working of which has no assignable limit, and it would not be strange if some ingenious writer should better Dr. Hale's instruction and publish his 'Memories of a Thousand Years.' It should be said, however, that Dr. Hale does not overrate the charm of oral tradition, and no parts of his book are more engaging than those which take hold upon the memories of those who were already old when he was young.

For the best appreciation of these 'Memories' it is above all things necessary that they should not be taken too seriously. They yield no definite information. To go to them for careful judgments upon men and events would be absurd. But, take them for what they are—the slap-dash reminiscences of an octogenarian of imperfect memory, of violent prejudices and excursive fancy—and they provide a fund of entertainment which only the improvident will neglect. It should be borne in mind that Dr. Hale has done more in fiction than in history, that his preference for the former is pronounced, and that he is never happier than when "submitting the shows of things to the desires of the mind." He has several convenient formulæ, "I think" and "I believe," etc., by which we are warned that he is embroidering the fact to suit his fancy; but his proclivity to imaginative writing is much too insuperable for him to be invariably conscious of its effect. There is a good deal of exaggeration which can hardly claim the license of the poet, as where he protests that he must have seen Webster thousands of times and read thousands of his private letters, where "scores" would probably be an exacter indication. A less venial fault is the sheer dogmatism of certain pronouncements, as that Webster was a greater man than Burke, and the intrusion of a bitter partisan note. Meantime there is no feature of the book that is more amusing than its excursive manner. The backward movement of 'Tristram Shandy' did not begin to be so comical as these flittings back and forth and in every possible and unlooked-for direction.

Much of the first volume is occupied with things that happened before Dr. Hale was born, and nothing could take us back to the fore part of the nineteenth century

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more vividly or painfully than the temper in which Thomas Jefferson is assailed. To know how the Federalists hated Jefferson in 1801, and to understand the spirit in which James Cheetham and other pamphleteers and journalists of that time carried on their political controversies, one could not do better than to read the depreciation of Jefferson that we have here. The novelty of the accusation is that it reduces Jefferson to a mere nonentity, which is not by any means the doctrine of Mr. Henry Adams, to whose 'History' Dr. Hale many times refers as confirmatory of his own opinion of Jefferson and "the Jefferson dynasty." Madison is always "poor Madison," while Monroe is treated with more absolute contempt, not even the Monroe Doctrine saving him. In his chapter on the historians, Dr. Hale has high praise for Bancroft, but if the two should ever meet in the Elysian Fields, and Bancroft has then read any translation of this book into the language of that country, Dr. Hale may expect as bad a quarter of an hour as Tartarus could afford.

There is a hint of personal grievance in Dr. Hale's treatment of Jefferson. We are assured that Jefferson treated Philip Nolan shabbily. But then Jefferson had not read 'The Man without a Country,' and could not be expected to have the interest in Philip Nolan felt by the author of that brilliant story. For clearly Dr. Hale's interest in the real Philip Nolan, a Western filibuster and horse-thief, is merely the reflection of his interest in the imaginary Philip Nolan of his story. It seems that he did not mean to name his inverted hero for an actual person, imagining that the real Nolan's name was Stephen. The name Philip was suggested to him by the mistake of an Episcopal rector who said St. Philip when he should have said St. Stephen. The real Philip Nolan was shot and killed on one of his horse-stealing raids into Texas, and his companions who were captured were severely punished. Hence, we are told, hatred of Spain in the Southwestern region, the annexation of Texas, the Mexican war, the Southern enthusiasm for the late Spanish-American war, and so on. It is all very amusing. Jefferson is bitterly reproached for not vindicating the cause of Philip Nolan, the unwitting namesake of Dr. Hale's man without a country. Dr. Hale would have Texas erect a statue to the real Nolan, and he would have another statue to him in the Washington gallery of heroes. Yet Dr. Hale confesses that he was hand in glove with Gen. Wilkinson, in whom he recognizes as complete a scoundrel as Aaron Burr or Benedict Arnold or Charles Lee.

The material development of the United States has an immense fascination for Dr. Hale, and he cannot say enough in praise of Eli Whitney's cotton-gin and the canals and railroads that have aided this development. There are few feathers in his father's cap that he prizes more than his function as promoter of the Boston and Worcester Railroad, and purchaser of its first locomotive. The filial piety which has this illustration has many another. One would not have it less, nor the loyalty to his uncle, Edward Everett, however we may question the representation of Everett's oratory as peculiarly spontaneous. We are promised much about the brother, Alexander H. Everett, but get very little. We get much more about Daniel Webster, first and last. Dr. Hale thinks his father had known him at Exeter, where Nathan Hale was an instructor from 1805 to 1808, and Webster was a pupil for nine months in 1793. There is no apt conjunction here, but of course Webster might have driven over to Exeter from Boscawen or Portsmouth. Much uncertainty is evinced as to the date of Webster's settlement in Boston, but 1816, the actual year, preponderates. Dr. Hale also thinks that his father sometimes taught in Ezekiel Webster's Boston school when Ezekiel was not well. But Ezekiel's school-keeping ended in 1807 and Nathan Hale came to Boston in 1808. The date of Webster's Faneuil Hall speech defending his adhesion to Tyler is given as 1841. It came off September 30, 1842. It is written of 1844, when Dr. Hale saw Webster in Washington, "He was then Secretary of State." He had ceased to be in May, 1843. "In 1830 I saw Jackson, who came to Boston as President"; but the visit was in 1833. Jared Sparks is called a Vermont boy; but he was a native of Connecticut. There are probably dozens of like mistakes in Dr. Hale's book, the most amazing being the transfer of the Boston *Liberator* to Baltimore. He closes his Webster passage with a brave defence of Webster's temperance, but he makes no reference to his careful use of money and the nice payment of his debts. It is a gross exaggeration of the popular impression to represent it as being that Webster "was often, not to say generally, overcome with liquor in the latter years of his life." The popular impression is that he used liquor freely, and was sometimes the worse for it on great public occasions, and this impression is certainly correct.

From Webster and the orators Dr. Hale passes to the American historians, and the characterization is so genial that we wonder who are the historians on whom Dr. Hale rains the punishing force of his unqualified contempt in many casual references to historical writing. John Fiske would flame indignantly at his lumping of Gibbon with Hume and Smollett and Mitford, as well he might. The Parkman section is illumined by a noble sonnet to Parkman by Dr. Hale's son, Robert. Beverly Hale, who, full of promise, died untimely. From the historians we pass to anti-slavery matters, and Dr. Hale is nowhere more interesting than here, especially after he is through with his book-learning and comes down to the *pars magna fui*, of which he makes no vain or inconsiderable boast. It is a very interesting fact that, immediately after the annexation of Texas, he wrote a pamphlet, 'How to Conquer Texas Before Texas Conquers Us.' The idea was that the free North should colonize the State. Here, though Benjamin Lundy was his forerunner, was good preparation for Dr. Hale's efficient alliance, ten years later, with Eli Thayer in his Emigrant Aid Society. Of that alliance Dr. Hale's account is extremely interesting. He thinks John Brown, "for whom he has a high respect," was of great injury to Kansas. This is less strange than his thinking that Thayer and Robinson have been depreciated in the interest of other spirits active in the Kansas struggle. They certainly did not depreciate themselves, except by the extravagance of their over-estimation. Each wrote his "Alone in Kansas"; Thayer, convinced that he was a bigger man than any other who was engaged in the anti-slavery enterprise or than all the rest together. Had they been less greedy of repute, they would have deserved, and would have had, an ampler fame. There was enough for all concerned.

The war chapters are good, and Dr. Hale's list of texts for his war-sermons is a sensible addition to the curiosities of pulpit literature. The story of his "First and Last Battle" is too good not to be true, but here and there a miserable doubt intrudes.

The memories of Boston literary men add little to what we had already. In the first paragraph on Emerson, his 'Representative Men' is apparently confounded with Carlyle's 'Heroes and Hero Worship'; the former having no essay on Mahomet. Dr. Hale's account of Emerson's persistent advocacy of college prayers is that of a surprising paradox. The account of Longfellow's Harvard teaching confirms Col. Higginson's recent testimony to its companionable manner. Dr. Hale used to tell Holmes that he was the first schoolboy to recite his "Old Ironsides." He probably did better then than now, when in four lines quoted he has "tattered" for "threadbare" and "battle" for "lightning."

When all is said, the prosperity of the book is in the personality of the writer, which saturates its every page, a personality which, having the defects of its qualities, is as interesting as it is unique.

Players and Plays of the Last Quarter Century. By Lewis C. Strang. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1903.

The most obvious remark concerning this latest addition to the already abundant crop of modern theatrical essays—biographical, anecdotical, and critical—is that it is a more than commonly flagrant instance of book-making. Mr. Strang starts out with the axiom that it is impossible to write intelligently of the theatre of to-day without a preliminary description of that of yesterday, and he makes this an excuse for filling up a large proportion of his six hundred pages with old and irrelevant matter concerning the actors and plays of the latter part of the eighteenth and the earlier half of the nineteenth century. About these he has no new facts to relate, while his personal comment is, necessarily, of the smallest possible value. Nor can it be said that these digressions enable him to arrive at any particularly novel or illuminating conclusions. He holds that the theatre reflects accurately the national sentiment and aspirations—a proposition somewhat trite as regards the old days when it was the chief, if not the only, means of popular expression, but true in only a very limited degree, if at all, in this era, when every passing phase of opinion or feeling finds instant vent in the daily press. To prove his point, Mr. Strang cites the so-called patriotic plays of the Spanish War period, speculative essays of cheap-Jack managers, of which the very names were unknown to the general community, and to which, by no stretch of the imagination, could any historical or sociological significance be attached. The fact is, that in its present estate the stage is dominated—there are exceptions to every rule—by

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the commercial instincts of the syndicates which own it, and prescribe the fashions for it in exactly the same way as the tailors and milliners decide what mankind shall wear. Moreover, Mr. Strang confutes his own theory. He says that there is no demand for the old tragedy, and yet dilates upon the fact that wherever Shakspere is represented adequately, the public flock to the performances.

Mr. Strang says that his book is a "critical review of existing conditions," but sharp exceptions will be taken to many of his critical dicta. He has, for instance, some queer notions on the subject of tragedy. He seems to think that blood-letting was the essential element in the old tragic plays, and the main secret of their former popularity. This might be true of the melodrama of a hundred years back, in which the broadsword combats played so prominent a part. That was already dying when Dickens wrote of Vincent Crummles. Mr. Strang attributes our ancestors' love of tragedy to the materiality of the age in which they existed. Man is now inspired, he thinks, with the spirit of optimism, and he foresees a tragedy of the future which will "breathe sweetness, tenderness, loveliness, and purity," and which, "instead of shocking by its horror, will inspire by its inherent optimism." In what respect this drama is to be tragic he does not explain.

His volumes would be more valuable if confined to matters of which he had some personal knowledge, or if he had been more careful to make it plain whether the opinion set down is his own or somebody else's. His summary of Forrest's career and capacity is a fairly judicious extract from contemporary testimony, but has no independent significance, while no one familiar with Charlotte Cushman's *Meg Merrilies* would have dismissed it curtly as a melodramatic monstrosity. The part itself was a very feeble reflection of Scott's vivid creation, but Miss Cushman's performance of it was a masterpiece of stirring and imaginative acting. As to other actresses succeeding in the character, nobody ever approached Miss Cushman in it, not even Janauschek. Mary Anderson, who possessed the physical characteristics of height and voice in an eminent degree, failed in it absolutely. Again, in speaking of Lawrence Barrett, Mr. Strang remarks that his influence upon the American stage was almost equal to that of Edwin Booth. Now, if there is one thing certain about Edwin Booth, it is that he exercised no influence upon the American stage at all. He won great fame and fortune for himself—nothing more. He trained no actors, encouraged no playwright, avoided all experiment, and for many years was utterly heedless of his artistic surroundings. Barrett, on the other hand, was an ambitious and enterprising reformer, encouraged native talent, revived the poetic drama, and helped to make some good actors. In another place, the author speaks of the genius of Booth encompassing the "brutal animalism" of Othello, whereas the avoidance of anything like this animalism was the salient characteristic (some thought the salient weakness) of Mr. Booth's Moor.

There is much truth in what Mr. Strang has to say about the limited artistic achievement of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, but few persons, outside of Boston, will agree with his comparative estimates of William Warren and John Gilbert. Although the two men had many parts in common, they did not belong to exactly the same class of actors. Warren shone most in low or eccentric comedy, and undoubtedly covered a wider range of character with rare versatility, whereas Gilbert was essentially a high comedian, with capacities for tragic work which Warren could never have attempted. It was only after he had passed the prime of life that he became so closely identified with the three or four characters —*Old Dornton, Sir Peter, Sir Anthony*, etc. —with which his fame is now chiefly associated. Mr. Strang detects the weakness of Augustin Daly as a manager when he says that "to gratify his own idea he was ruthless in his treatment of the text of great English plays, and was so lavish with his pageantry that many of his productions were marvels of misconceived and misapplied effort." This is undeniable, but he was for many years the only real theatrical manager, in the full sense of the term, in the United States, and he has left no successor.

Few persons, nowadays, will quarrel with Mr. Strang's description of the Harrigan plays (in which some critics discerned an almost divine inspiration) as noisy, coarse, and vulgar. Some of the eulogies written about them would make curious reading to-day, but not more so, perhaps, than the extravagant praise of third-rate plays and players of the present period will afford twenty-five years hence. But surely some mention, if only as a matter of record, ought to have been made of Mr. Hart, who contributed very largely to the success of the tenement-house drama. But then, in his account of the great English actors of the nineteenth century, Mr. Strang does not even mention Samuel Phelps, who did more to popularize the legitimate drama than any man of his time. He was, probably, so far as solid achievement is concerned, the greatest actor-manager who ever lived.

Mr. Strang's review of the work of modern authors, William Young, Bronson Howard, William Gillette, Augustus Thomas, James A. Herne, Clyde Fitch, and others, does not evince much judgment or sense of proportion. It is sufficient, perhaps, to state that he accounts "Shenandoah" the best of Mr. Howard's pieces. Undoubtedly it was one of the most remunerative, but there was better work in "Aristocracy," "The Banker's Daughter," "Old Love Letters," and "Young Mrs. Winthrop." Space will permit no more than a passing reference to the author's dissertations upon various modern "stars," the emotional drama, etc., most of which are more fluent than sound; but it may be as well to say that the objection taken by some of Mr. Pinero's critics to his recent problem plays is not on account of any intrinsic immorality in such teaching as they may be supposed to enforce, but because in effect they are sensational presentations of morbid, unclean, and infectious matter, which in a theatre must do more harm than good. Moreover, their potency consists not in their truth to nature, but in their brilliant theatrical treatment. Mr. Strang is confident that there is a great and pressing demand for the American play which presently will be met, in accordance with the general law, and that straightway the theatre will rise Phœnixlike from its ashes, free itself from the superincumbent mass of foulness and stupidity, and put on new literary and artistic glories. It is difficult to see upon what he builds his expectations. American drama is plentiful, but it is not improving sensibly, and there is apparently little hope of salvation in that direction. Intelligent management and good stock companies for the raising of a body of sound actors are the essential preliminaries of revival.

L'Histoire par les Monnaies: Essais de Numismatique Ancienne. Par Théodore Reinach. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1902. Pp. iv., 272.

Guide to the Catharine Page Perkins Collection of Greek and Roman Coins. (Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902. Pp. viii., 112.

When Huxley coupled numismatics with theology, it was less to exalt the one than to depress the other, with a glance at the supposed antiquarian character of both. Whatever the decadence of dogma, old coins still find less favor than old doctrines, and the ordinary collector is as far from the real numismatist as the average pewholder from the higher critic. Fifty years ago, boys gathered cents of the various dates, and "Jersey horseheads"; to-day, their elders collate the products of our home mints, but look askance on those of former ages. The Roman imperial series, being at once the easiest to understand and the most historically important, might be expected to attract; but, to the man in the street, Augustus and the Antonines "are dead." His antithesis is the archæologist, who turns from the familiar to regions untilled, or where at least something is to be gleaned after the reapers. The Roman field is practically exhausted; what remains but to determine as to a score or two of doubtful issues, and add a possible few types to the twenty-odd thousand described and even valued (as to rarity) by Cohen?

But there was a race older and in a way greater than the Roman; one that in its decadence continued to rule the world, and has no less than its successors to say to modern ideas and institutions. The Greeks had no centralization; human heads, except of monarchs after Alexander, never appeared on their money; "coins were regarded as the badge of freedom," and each town might issue them, under no rule but that of its own artistic instinct. Hence the Greek coinage is as various, complicated, and in the main obscure, as that of Rome is uniform and obvious. In 1854 Colonel Leake estimated that at least a thousand cities and three hundred "tyrants" had issued coins, "some of them in hundreds of varieties"; and subsequent excavations and studies have added to this throng of sources. "The number of types," says the Boston Museum handbook, "is legion." Mr. Head of the British Museum, in his 'Historia Numorum,' the largest and best English book on this subject, disclaims any attempt at exhaustiveness, and passes lightly over the copper or bronze issues, naturally the most numerous and various everywhere. Anything like a complete list of Greek mint-issues is impossible as yet; indeed, to be final, it would have to wait till most of the soil of southern Europe, southwestern Asia, and northern Africa had been thoroughly spaded and

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sifted, and the results long and laboriously pored over by more than one or two devotees—for the coins as found are mostly small and hard to decipher, both from imperfect lettering and from their experiences above and under ground. Researches and editing once worthily accomplished, a millionaire or a government might be needed to bear the expense of publishing a work greater than King Victor's forthcoming volume (or volumes) describing all the coins of *Italy, mediæval and modern.*

But to enthusiasm nothing is impossible. To numismatists of the thirty-third degree "ancient" means Greek; this is implied in the title of M. Reinach's treatise, as in that of Mr. Head before him. The Romans were comparatively modern; everything has been said as to their mintages, which may now be left to children and everyday collectors. Greece—which in this sense extends from the Caspian to the Atlantic, and from 700 B. C. to our era—is the one field for research. The last century, says M. Reinach, has witnessed the beginning of a *Corpus numorum veterum*, which the present age may "perhaps" see completed. As a contribution thereto, he and M. Ernest Babelon have already in press a 'Catalogue général des Monnaies grecques de l'Asie Mineure,' geographically the largest and numismatically among the most crowded sections of the Greek world. These scholars would be the first to point out that such a list can be only "to date," since a coin which is unique to-day may be one of a family to-morrow, and any "find" may modify an established classification or overturn a theory which has passed for fact. Numismatics advances mainly bit by bit, here a little and there a little, through French essays like M. Reinach's and British Museum publications, each touching usually but one corner of a large land; and a descriptive catalogue of all the coins of Asia Minor will be no small addition to our knowledge.

Yet M. Reinach regards this sort of work as merely preliminary: to study coins simply for themselves is to be of the lower class. He distinguishes between pure and applied numismatics. The former describes, classifies, and explains coins; the other, he says, utilizes them, with other means, to resolve questions raised by "l'histoire politique, économique, artistique, religieuse de l'antiquité." Mr. Head and other post-graduates are of the same mind; and the 'Guide to the Perkins Collection' is more explicit: "Greek coins are important for the help they afford in tracing the political, municipal, and commercial history of the ancient world; they also throw light on Greek society, religion, mythology, philology, iconography, chronology, and geography; and they have been termed 'the grammar of Greek art.'" To make them serve some of these uses seems always M. Reinach's object, whether he is discussing the relative values of ancient gold and silver, or the Delphic monetary system, or the dynasty of Commagene, or such obscure topics as the Derrones (known only by a few coins), or a monetary crisis in the third century of our era, or "une monnaie hybride des insurrections juives." That last is an attractive theme, though it affords but a bare five pages.

The Perkins Collection in the Boston Museum is rather a selection, for it claims but 609 pieces, among which Rome is scantily represented by five of the Republic and twenty-five of the Empire; the rest are Greek. Roman coins are mostly inexpensive, and certainly of high historic value; but the idea of art has ruled here. Of Greek alone a collection ten times as large could be gathered for the probable cost of this; but the 579 were chosen chiefly for condition and presumably for typical character. Fifty-seven of them have been photographed, and are here presented on a black ground in five plates, with an effect of most uncommon clearness, strength, and beauty. One, probably of these (we are not told which), brought more than $1,500 at a London sale, and another over $900: these might be moderate prices for books or stamps, but are infrequent with coins, even the rarest and finest. The text of this Handbook reflects no little credit on its too modest author, who withholds his name and disclaims originality, but cannot conceal his mental calibre and attainments. From his brief introduction the average collector or the uninstructed reader may gain more information as to the genesis of coinage, and in a clearer form, than he will easily find elsewhere. Altogether the booklet is most creditable to the Museum, and a contribution (as it is intended to be) both to art education and to the neglected study of numismatics.

A Life of Mr. Yukichi Fukuzawa. By A. Miyamori. Tokio: Z. P. Maruya & Co.

Rarely in any age or nation has it been given to one man so to change the mental outlook of his country as did Fukuzawa that of Japan (1834-1901). As teacher, editor, author, he became the intellectual father of half the thinking men of Japan in this generation. The copies of his printed books ran into the millions. Refusing the sword or office, titles or decorations, absolutely honest and fearless, he toiled as the soldier of culture and righteousness to transform a nation. Stepping down out of the ranks of the gentry, his life was spent in lifting up the masses. He was the liberator of his people from Confucianism and other Chinese cramping notions, and from insular narrowness and bigotry. He led the Japanese into the intellectual freedom of the West. He was the exalter of woman. He cared little or nothing for dogma: his one idea was to know truth according to reason. His ethics were summed up in "independence and self-respect." For forty years the "Great Commoner" wrought in the same field with Okubo, Saigo, Ito, and Shibusawa, as well as with Hepburn, Brown, Verbeck, and Greene, to make and keep Japan one of the nations in the van of progress.

This little book of less than two hundred pages, by Professor Miyamori, its English revised by Prof. E. H. Vickers of the college founded by the master, is based on Fukuzawa's autobiography. It tells of the early struggles of the half-orphan lad to learn Dutch when European books were excessively rare and had to be copied by hand with the pen. When Yokohama was opened, the poor fellow found that, with all his Dutch, he could not read the signs or labels, for they were in English. Happily, he was able to take a voyage to America in the first Japanese steamer which the once hermits navigated across the Pacific within seven years after they had first seen coal-smoke from a ship's funnel. Afterwards he visited Europe, and again the United States. His book on Western Countries, read by all classes, was like the building of a great window in the dead wall of the national intellect. Yet for years Fukuzawa had to live amid assassins who hated "evil opinions." Often he was in the very jaws of death. Seeing how eagerly the soldier and the office-seeker sought to ply their trades—in each case with blunting of the moral sense—he resolved to avoid both battle and boodle. He consecrated himself to the idea that "the independence of a nation consists in the independent spirit of the individuals composing it." In a word, he struck at the core of the Confucian social system. On the day of the great battle at Uyeno, in Tokio, within sound of the cannon, he began the teaching of Wayland's 'Moral Science'—the books having arrived that day. He foretold the rush for office, by both fighting parties, as soon as war was over. The Keio College which he founded (named after the chronological period, 1865-1867), ever a formidable and inspiring rival of the Imperial University, has now over 1,700 students. The *Jiji Shimpo*, which he began and for years edited, is, among its contemporaries, what the two or three greatest journals are in the English-speaking world. "To elevate the character of all the Japanese, to make them worthy of the name of a civilized nation, . . . to encourage the spread of Buddhism or Christianity, . . . to help scholars in their study of profound theories," as the closing sentences of the twenty-fourth edition of his autobiography declare, were the objects of his life. His last work was an utterly destructive analysis of the Confucian principles underlying Kaibara's 'Great Learning for Women'—the standard in old Japan for the training or, rather, the subjection of women. It was written after his years of constructive teaching in journal, book, and lecture, in which he assaulted sensualism and polygamy, and pleaded for the education and uplift of woman as man's companion. His death was mourned by all, from Emperor to laborer, and ten thousand people walked behind his bier.

This little biography is a model in its way. It is terse, luminous, and rich in facts, besides being suggestive and valuable for that kind of history which deals with internal forces, none the less potent because imponderable and immeasurable. The reviewer can not agree with Professor Miyamori when he asserts that "Mr. Fukuzawa introduced this art [of public speaking] into Japan," for he was himself a member of the same club in Tokio named Meirokusha (p. 79) to which Fukuzawa belonged, and often talked with and heard the man who first found or coined Japanese words for "speech," "debate," "second," etc. Nevertheless, he knows how thoroughly the American teachers and missionaries had, even before Fukuzawa's beginning, trained their pupils and converts in the forms or Western deliberative assemblages. For Robert H. Bryan (p. 54) R. H. Pruyn should be read, and one or two of the Dutch names need reconstruction. This little book ought to be in our public libraries.

CARNEGIE BRANCH.
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The Cathedrals of Great Britain, their History and Architecture. By P. H. Ditchfield, M.A., F.S.A., Fellow of the Royal Historical Society, Rector of Barkham. With numerous illustrations by Herbert Railton, J. A. Symington, H. M. James, H. Cricqmore, etc. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. xii., 452.

It is not surprising that the supply remains constant of books devoted to the English cathedrals. To those persons who are immediately interested in them, or in one of them, no other earthly subject is quite as important: and to such persons there is also the pleasant assurance that many travellers, especially the English-reading Americans, come every year to visit those shrines of pilgrimage, and that a large minority of them will buy the books. The volume now under consideration is a small octavo, and can be carried in the pocket of a working overcoat, or more easily in a hand-bag along with an opera-glass and the like. It deals with all the cathedrals in Great Britain; and to this it adds a consideration of Westminster Abbey and Beverley Minster. All are mediæval buildings except St. Paul's in London; and as St. Paul's is the only example of its class, its history is set forth in twenty-five pages with a number of text-illustrations, while no other building except Ely Cathedral has as many, even Westminster Abbey, with its immensely interesting display of monuments, falling short by a page or two. To Newcastle only two-thirds of a page is given. Iona, Brechin, Aberdeen, Dunblane, Dunkeld, St. Andrew's, Kirkwall, and St. Giles's Church at Edinburgh are also put off each with a page of text more or less, and no illustrations at all. And this seems disproportionate, because, while their artistic interest may be less, their historical record is as important as if they were as splendid as Canterbury.

Concerning the value of the work, it can only be said that the author seems to have endeavored to do his duty as a guide. He has drawn on authorities of all sorts, and mentions their names in his preface —church officers of many ecclesiastical establishments in England, and the architectural writers from Rickman to Prior, covering some three-quarters of a century of *quasi*-archæological research. The book is not elegantly written; nor is perfect accuracy in description or in definition to be found in it. The word pilaster is defined in two or three insignificant ways; for instance, in the note on page 27, nearly followed in the "Glossary," it is said to be "a column attached to a wall." The odd statement on page 145 that "the vaulting is what is known as lierne" would throw an untrained visitor into great embarrassment, more especially as lierne is not given in the glossary. We are asked to feel a sad interest in the burial of Mary Queen of Scots at Peterborough, and to think of "the twilight procession bearing the executed body of the frail but fair queen." There are also some odd bits of history furnished, as when we are told that "in 1642 Cromwell's soldiers, under the Earl of Essex, entered the town [Worcester] and did after their kind," where there is evidently confusion between Cromwell and the Parliament—"the Houses." The index is merely a one-page list of towns and buildings with which the book is chiefly concerned; and the glossary, already named, occupies two pages only, and is, of course, extremely inadequate.

Animals before Man in North America: Their Lives and Times. By Frederic A. Lucas. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 298. Illustrated.

Mr. Lucas is a very entertaining writer. He popularizes his science so that the technicalities are unobjectionable to any class of readers, and do not make the science appear to suffer by their lack of prominence. The story he tells relates in the greater part to vertebrates; it is that of the periods in their history sketched from the more patent features of well-marked epochs, with something about the forms of the creatures, their kindred affinities, migrations, localities of discovery, etc. The narrative, as a whole, is decidedly interesting and is well rounded. The conclusions as to relations of the extinct types and the causes of their disappearance are probably as good as any; but our liking for the work does not carry with it agreement with quite all that is said.

On page 114, in the quoted remarks concerning a batrachian of the lower coal measures, the footprints are described as "hand-like, that of the fore foot five-fingered and four inches broad; that of the hind foot somewhat smaller and four-fingered," which reverses the conditions generally present on these animals as to toes and feet, and recalls the noted saurian which at one time, in the hands of an eminent palæontologist, wore its atlas on the end of its tail. The dentition of sharks, page 105, calls out the statement that "only one of the many rows of teeth is in use at one time, the others forming a reserve supply, to be drawn upon in case of accident, and, like reserves of soldiers, these are kept at the rear and lie down out of the way." This does not give a very fair idea of the matter, for the growth of teeth is continuous, new rows forming at the rear, and old ones shelling off at the front, accident or no.

Looking for our author's accepted theory of origins, one finds him to be facing in several ways. On page 91 he says protective resemblances "have been brought about, so it is believed, by elimination, by the weeding out of the more defenceless, so that the process is passive, not active"; and on page 104, "protective resemblances could hardly have originated by any other process than that of a slow weeding out of the more conspicuous individuals." By a weeding out of the unregenerate one might as well account for the different religious denominations. The author limits himself to weeding out for protection. On page 275, in accounting for evolution, he places himself on safer ground (somewhat familiar to our readers during the last twenty years), and here relies on "an inborn tendency in living things, both plants and animals, to vary and to adapt themselves to circumstances." He further says: "Changes in their surroundings—and these are ever taking place—simply allow this natural tendency a chance to act." Instead of "allow," he would better use a word like induce, stimulate, or impel. He might account for protective resemblances by an innate tendency in variation encouraged and guided by circumstances. In regard to the extinction of so many forms, Mr. Lucas concludes that "there seems to be an old age in the life of species as well as in the life of individuals, when a species, a family, or an order even, comes to an end without apparent cause, simply because its race is run."

Specimens of Middle Scots. With Introduction, Notes, and Glossary. By G. Gregory Smith, M.A. Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons. 1902. Pp. lxxv., 374.

This volume deserves a cordial welcome, not only from special students of Scots, but from all who are interested in the earlier periods of the English language and literature. Mr. Eyre-Todd's 'Abbotsford Series' and Dr. Hand Browne's 'Early Scottish Poets' have hitherto had the field to themselves, and neither of these collections made any serious pretensions to scholarly accuracy. Mr. Gregory Smith presents here some thirty selections illustrating the most important writers from the middle of the fifteenth to the middle of the seventeenth century; the texts are carefully printed from the most authoritative sources accessible; and the notes and glossary show an acquaintance with the results of recent scholarship which has been lamentably rare in editions of Scots texts.

As the title indicates, the volume is not intended to represent Early Scots, though an appendix includes extracts from 'Ratis Raving,' 'The Bruce,' 'Lancelot of the Laik,' and 'Rauf Coilzear.' This limitation of scope is defended on the ground of the identity—so strongly insisted on by Dr. Murray—of Early Scots and Northern Middle English. Whether this identity is regarded as proved or not, there is an obvious drawback in the lack of an easily accessible group of documents illustrating the language out of which the dialect of the present extracts developed.

This limitation appears the more regrettable when one comes to examine Mr. Gregory Smith's introductory treatment of the grammar and phonology. Even as this stands, it forms the most important contribution to the subject since Dr. Murray wrote his 'Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland,' thirty years ago. But 'the absence of any systematic treatment of the sounds of Early Scots makes the purely descriptive account here given of Middle Scots phonology less intelligible and less valuable.

The discussion of the constituents of the vocabulary of the period is independent and interesting. The most notable departure from a view hitherto accepted is in the statement of the comparative importance of the French and the Latin elements. Mr. Gregory Smith attacks vigorously the misleading picture of French influence given in such works as the exceedingly uncritical 'Critical Inquiry into the Scottish Language' of M. Francisque-Michel. Conversely, he shows that, to an extent far greater than has hitherto been supposed, the Middle Scots writers supplemented their native vocabulary with words and idioms drawn directly from Latin. The sections on the Celtic and Scandinavian contributions are refreshingly free from the

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faddist tendencies that have marked much of the work on these subjects.

Thus, taking the book for what it professes to be, we are able to congratulate ourselves on the appearance of a volume which at last provides a satisfactory starting-point for the systematic study of the most unjustly neglected period of English.

The Story of Athens. By Howard Crosby Butler. The Century Co.

Mr. Butler attempts to give a sketch of the life and art of Athens from its earliest beginnings to the present day. To compress "the glory that was Greece" into a volume of 500 pages is, naturally, beyond human power. Mr. Butler's "record of the life and art of the city of the violet crown read in its ruins and in the lives of great Athenians"—to quote the sub-title—is a mere outline as far as the history and literature of Athens are concerned. But he is a trained archæologist, whose main interest is architecture, and he uses his historical sketch of Athenians and Athenian enterprise as a mere thread on which to hang some very minute and interesting descriptions of the monuments in the light of excavations. They will probably be of more use to the popular reader than to the scholar, who would turn to other sources for expert information. There is, however, one feature of Mr. Butler's book that even the scholar need not despise. We refer to the numerous line drawings of the Athenian monuments of architecture; these are admirably done, and are in most cases more useful than photographs would be; but Mr. Butler reproduces also some excellent photographs of the sculptures.

There is an amusing discrepancy between Mr. Butler's scholarly precision in treating of the monuments and his purely popular handling of history. On page 215 we read, in a long, minute description of the Parthenon, that

"the intercolumniations at the four angles were narrower than those adjoining them on the ends and sides, and were spaced with special design to give greater solidity to the corners. . . . The octostyle porches made it possible to depart from the usual design for pronaos and epinaos, . . . and instead of the common form (distyle in antis) to provide broad, open, hexastyle porticos within the octostyle façades."

We quote this to show the author's care for precise detail in a question of architecture, and give, by way of contrast, an extract from a florid and purely imaginary description of an incident of the Persian invasion (p. 129):

"Before any of the rest, a crippled youth had toiled up the long, winding ascent to the Acropolis. . . . Fair-haired he was, and his fine face was bronzed by the scorching Attic sun; his eyes were full of fire, which his crooked form bade him ever suppress, and the valor of his soul almost consumed him as his heart and mind strained toward the scene of the approaching conflict. The sultry day wore on, the burning sun drove many of the watchers, one by one, to seek the shade of the temple porticos, but the youth never changed his place, nor turned his head as hour after hour passed on."

Mr. Butler naïvely admits that "this little story was told to me by an old Greek sailor whom I met one morning upon the Acropolis. I never saw him afterward, and was unable to find out where he got the story."

A future edition would be greatly improved by the omission of about 200 pages of uncritical statement. The style is marred by metaphors which, as on pages 192 and 256, are usually too long to quote. On page 484, a "bucket of devastation" is "dashed over the city." Here and there we have noted careless English; *e. g.*, page 461: "It would seem as if . . . . *that* a church . . . must have grown up." "He converted into a bad Governor" (p. 494). The name of the Greek orator is twice written Issæus, which is unusual; on page 73 for Ilyssus read Ilissus. The faults of the book are the more conspicuous because of its obvious merits. If only on the ground of its illustrations and architectural descriptions, it is to be recommended to classical students who have not had the benefit of a sojourn in Athens, or have not access to archæological publications.

The Anglican Episcopate and the American Colonies. By Arthur Lyon Cross, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

The carefulness of this piece of research is vouched for by its acceptance for the writer's degree of doctor of philosophy at Harvard University and by its winning of the Toppan prize in 1899. To wide study the writer has added some skill in the presentation of his matter, though he has neglected the humorous implications of his subject where some of his ecclesiastical predecessors in the field have made much of them. An introductory chapter deals in a general way with the beginnings of episcopal control over the colonies, the only permanent results of which were the establishment of the Church of England in Virginia, and the fixing of the precedent that the diocesan control of the English plantations in North America should be vested in the Bishop of London. This precedent originated in the Stuart policy, instigated by Laud, which sought to make the English Church coextensive with English government throughout the known world. A second chapter covers the policy and work of Compton, who was Bishop of London from 1675 to 1714. He reëstablished the authority of his bishopric, which had lapsed during the period of the civil war and Commonwealth, stimulated individual enterprises of Church extension in the colonies, and instituted the custom of sending commissaries with delegated authority. But his great work was the formation of that Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, to which the present Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States owes its origin in a preëminent degree. Bishop Gibson's term, 1723-1748, was characterized by a fair trial of the commissarial system, and an absence of political intention from the general conduct of Church affairs in America. But Bishop Sherlock, who came next in order, was resolved upon the establishment of Anglican bishoprics in America. He was not the first, however, who burst into this troubled sea. Laud and one or two of the Restoration bishops made abortive attempts.

The missionaries of the S. P. G. endeavored vainly to enlist home influence in favor of the episcopal scheme. Their efforts seem to have been without political bias. This is one of Mr. Cross's findings that has controversial importance. One Dr. Johnson in America, and Bishops Secker and Sherlock in England, gave the business a political twist. In fact, Sherlock's interest in the American churches was confined to their political aspect, and to their control by Anglican bishops in residence. The Mayhew and Chauncy controversies have each a separate chapter. In these the political infusion was of the strongest kind. One does not get from Mr. Cross's pages so vivid an idea of the compliments exchanged as from those of Foote's 'Annals of King's Chapel.'

In conclusion, Mr. Cross draws out from his studies an inference unfavorable to the opinion that the attempt to impose Anglican bishops on America had an important effect in bringing about the separation of the colonies from Great Britain. In 1815 John Adams pronounced this opinion with the emphasis characteristic of his family. The effect, he said, was as certain as any in the history of North America. If Parliament could introduce bishops, it could impose the whole hierarchy and forbid dissent. Mr. Mellen Chamberlain supported this view a few years ago in an able address. Mr. Cross concedes the later political character of the episcopal controversy, but contends that the strained relations which foreboded independence strengthened the opposition to an Anglican episcopate much more than the push for this in England and America made definitely for political alienation. And he appears to make his contention good without any forcing of the note.

Syllabus of Lectures on the History of Education. With Selected Bibliographies. By Ellwood P. Cubberley. Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. 302.

This handbook is a revision of a syllabus of lectures used by the writer with a class in the history of education. It contains topical outlines of the various chapters in the history of education, and bibliographies in connection with each chapter. The former section, especially without an index, will hardly be used. A syllabus, like a notebook, is a great help to the man who makes it, but of doubtful value for anybody else. The student of the history of education should make his own outlines, and each individual will classify and divide the subject in his own way. The bibliographies, however, are of great value, and they cover the whole field of conventional education from ancient Oriental education to the nineteenth century in Europe and European influence on American education.

Our indebtedness to the author for these is so great that criticism would seem ungrateful were it not that some of the improvements indicated may be made in a future edition. The prime defect of the book is the incompleteness of the references given, as one or two concrete examples will illustrate. On page 119 the following reference is given: "Whitcomb, M.: The Autobiography of Thomas Platter," without date, place of publication, or other clue. The beginner in education will naturally suppose this refers to a book edited by Whitcomb, but he will search in vain for it. The student of education who cares to trace it, may think to look in Whitcomb's 'Source-Book of the German Renaissance,' and, if so, he will find a selection from the autobiography of this famous wandering student; but Mr. Whitcomb, so far as

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the reviewer is aware, has published nothing else on Thomas Platter. On page 34 is a reference to "Nettleship, Henry: Lectures on the Republic of Plato." Here again only the special student is likely to know what is referred to. If Nettleship's famous essay on "The Theory of Education in the Republic of Plato" is meant, then the reference should be to Abbott's 'Hellenica,' in which this was published; or if a reprint, then that should be mentioned; or if a separate volume of lectures, then the date and place of publication should be given. Thirty-nine similarly defective references occur on the same page. Ziegler, whose 'Geschichte der Paedagogik' is naturally referred to again and again throughout the book, is apparently mentioned but once, and then his name is misspelled; the reference is always to Baumeister, because this history happens to form a volume in Baumeister's "Handbuch." Even in the note on page 1, Baumeister instead of Ziegler is referred to as a standard authority. Such slips raise a suspicion that much of the work may have been done by students rather than by Professor Cubberley, and in some degree depreciate the value of the book.

The author's ideal is excellent. As stated in the preface, "an attempt has been made to study the history of education as a phase of the history of civilization." From this wider point of view the bibliographies, excellent as they are, are by no means adequate. By cutting down the outlines their value would hardly be diminished, and space might be gained for references on the wider social, political, and industrial relations of education, and for a general index.

American Food and Game Fishes: A Popular Account of All the Species Found in America North of the Equator, with Keys for Ready Identification, Life Histories, and Methods of Capture. By David Starr Jordan, Ph.D., and Barton Warren Evermann, Ph.D. Doubleday, Page & Co. Small 4to, pp. 623. Illustrated.

There are good reasons why this book should do much toward diffusing knowledge of the fishes. It is profusely illustrated by figures in the text, and it has more than a hundred half-tone plates, including some in colors. The descriptive matter is generally very good; in places where somewhat deficient, it is helped out by the excellent figures. The latter, excepting the colored ones, are distributed with the text pertaining to them—a much more convenient arrangement than if placed together or in an atlas. So little being known of many species, the popular account in their cases is little more than the scientific description. The game fishes are those commonly known as such; the food fishes here depicted include many rarely or never seen in our markets. It is said there are about 3,300 known American fishes found north of Panama in the waters of North America. In our authors' words: "All of these the present writers have described in detail in a book of four volumes and 3,313 pages, called 'The Fishes of North and Middle America,' to which those who wish to study our fishes more seriously are referred." The present volume is, to cover the same area, including only fishes good for food or good for sport.

Errors in spelling, some of them copied in the index, occur on various pages; for instances: "leart" in the name of "least whitefish"; "Brachydenterus" for Brachydeuterus, "Rachochëilus" for Rhacochilus, "Otraciidæ" for Ostraciidæ, "Argentinidiæ" for Argentinidæ, and others. One of the plates bears the legend, "Salmon Leaping a Falls." In the account of the Embiotocidæ (the viviparous perches), page 469, it is said that "since the discovery of their viviparity by Dr. Gibbons in 1854, these fishes have been of special interest to zoologists," and on page 472 the statement is made that Dr. A. C. Jackson "on June 7, 1852, discovered the viviparity of these fishes, and first brought the fact to the attention of Professor Louis Agassiz." The first printed notice of the viviparity of these fishes appears to be that of Prof. Louis Agassiz, November, 1853. Dr. Gibbons's publications appeared in 1854. Professor Agassiz states that his information was first received in Mr. Jackson's letter of February, 1852, from which it is evident that the June 7 referred to by the latter as the date of his discovery must have been that of 1851.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, W. J., and Spiers, R. P. The Architecture of Greece and Rome. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
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